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ABSTRACT

These conference proceedings contain 55 papers and symposia presented at the conference whose focus was on nonformal adult education. Papers deal with adult/continuing education concerns such as participatory research, ABLE (Adult Basic Level Education) parenting, army basic skills educational development, learning contracts, volunteerism, literacy, extension education for small farm operators, retired faculty as a resource, use of television for learning, learning, Personalized System of Instruction in adult basic education, aging, community-based learning, stress arousal measurement, effects of a peer counseling training program on older adults, death education, impact of older students on undergraduates, stress, self-directed learning, competency-based adult reading management system, community education, inservice education, adult reading strategies, psychosocial needs of low-literacy adults, consumer education, lifelong learning and women professionals, counseling services, distance education, satellite learning centers, and women's career development. Other areas include teaching, policy, community development, international education, and research methodology. Although most papers focus on conditions in the United States, adult education in modern Greece, an extension program for young families in Finland and a participatory agricultural extension approach in Tanzania are discussed. (YLB)

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LIFELONG LEARNING RESEARCH CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

FEBRUARY 12-13, 1982

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL & EXTENSION EDUCATION

University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland 20742

Gene C. Whaples

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PREFACE

This publication is a report of the proceedings of the Fourth Annual (1982) Lifelong Learning Research Conference held at the University of Maryland in College Park, Maryland, on February 12 and 13, 1982. The conference focus on non-formal adult education grew out of a concern with problems in this region and the need to facilitate dialogue between researchers and practitioners involved in their resolution. Papers dealt with adult/continuing education concerns such as aging, literacy, teaching, learning, and policy. Other areas include community development, international education, volunteerism, and research methodology.

The conference was designed to build interagency linkages in the region. Sponsoring agencies include the Maryland Cooperative Extension Service, the University of Maryland's Department of Agricultural and Extension Education, the Conferences and Institutes Division of University College (University of Maryland), the Adult Education Association/USA, the Maryland Association for Adult Education, the Metropolitan Washington Adult Education Association, Maryland Association for Publicly Supported Continuing Education, Adult and Community Education Branch, Division of Instruction, Maryland State Department of Education, the Maryland Service Corps and the Adult Education Association of Virginia. The steering committee included representatives from The University of the District of Columbia, Howard Community College (Maryland), Marshall University (West Virginia), Maryland State Department of Education, Maryland Service Corps, as well as the University of Maryland, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Cornell University, Eastern Tennessee State University, Virginia Commonwealth University, University of Pittsburgh, Northern Virginia Community College, Prince George's Community College, American Association of Retired Persons and the National Retired Teachers Association.

A major goal of the conference was to bridge the gap between theory and practice by providing a mechanism through which researchers and practitioners could share their concerns with each other. The conference had an interdisciplinary focus, bringing together people with different academic backgrounds who share similar concerns with lifelong learning issues.

The papers presented were selected "blind" by a peer committee that reviewed over 130 abstracts. The papers published in these proceedings were reproduced directly from copy provided by the authors. The authors' names and addresses are listed at the bottom of the first page of each paper. If you desire more information, please correspond directly with them.

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Department of Agricultural and Extension Education

The Department of Agricultural and Extension Education, University of Maryland, College Park, is a multidisciplinary department featuring graduate programs in Adult, Continuing and Extension Education. With a graduate faculty membership of 12, the department has specialties and interests in international education, community development, youth leadership and development, environmental education, community services and teacher education in agriculture. The Department has traditionally maintained close working relationships with the Federal Extension Service, U. S. Office of Education, the National 4-H Center, the National FFA Center and the Maryland State Department of Education. In addition to the Adult, Continuing and Extension Education Graduate Program, graduate programs in Community Development and Rural Sociology, Environmental Education and Agricultural Education are offered along with an undergraduate teacher education program in agriculture. For further details write: Department of Agricultural and Extension Education, University of Maryland, Room 0220, Symons Hall, College Park, Maryland 20742.

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The Adult Education Association is the national association of individuals and institutions involved in the education of adults. AEA's primary goal is to increase the opportunities for lifelong learning for all citizens. The Association serves as a forum for identification of emerging issues in the wide field of adult education and as a vehicle for interpretation and dialogue. Serving as the principle voice of adult education, AEA's central role is to promote and develop adult education. This is done by affording opportunities for adult educators, practitioners and learners to increase their competencies, and by assisting organizations and agencies in developing adult education policies, programs and activities for the millions of adult learners in this country and throughout the world. For further information write: Adult Education Association of the United States of America, 810 Eighteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., 20006.

Maryland Association for Adult Education

Maryland Association for Adult Education (MAAE) is an affiliate of the Adult Education Association of the U.S.A. and has the prime responsibility of supporting adult/continuing education in Maryland. MAAE supports the philosophy of "lifelong learning". It recognizes that persons are constantly faced with new and challenging tasks in life requiring additional skills, further direction, more information. It contends that the educational experience includes all aspects of the community including social change agencies, educational institutions, career development facilities, religious organizations, etc. Members of MAAE represent all walks of life (adult education instructors, library personnel, representatives from labor and industry, administrators from correctional institutions, consumer education specialists, religious leaders, etc.) having a common concern--more effective educational experiences for adults in Maryland. For further information write: MAAE, Room 0220, Symons Hall, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland 20742.

Adult Education Association of Virginia

The Adult Education Association of Virginia, a vital, dynamic association of thirty years, is a comprehensive organization of individuals whose occupations and interests influence the education and training of adults. Membership (currently in excess of 200) includes educators from public and private schools, colleges, community colleges and universities as well as training directors from business, industry, the military and governmental agencies. The AEAV is committed to working for greater individual growth, a better Virginia and a better nation by encouraging, stimulating, and extending the continuing education of its own members and others throughout the state. The membership shares a determination to improve the quality of adult life in Virginia through continuing education.

The Adult Education Association of Metropolitan Washington

The Adult Education Association of Metropolitan Washington is a "state" affiliate of the Adult Education Association of the United States of America (AEA/USA), whose major purpose as stated in its constitution is "to further the concept of education as a process continuing throughout life." Membership gives you the opportunity to: participate in an active and growing organization of adult educators; exchange ideas with colleagues at regular meetings of the association; learn about current trends and innovations in the field; work with recognized national leaders in the many areas comprising adult education; voice your concerns for the future of adult education through the legislative process; and receive the newsletter of AEA/MW. For further information write: The Adult Education Association of Metropolitan Washington, 810 Eighteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006.

Maryland Service Corps

The Maryland Service Corps is a state volunteer agency which encourages and develops programs of public service which involve citizens of all ages in meeting the critical human needs of the states' residents. Volunteers are recruited to serve in all phases of state and local government, and in private non-profit agencies. Volunteers are trained in the general field of volunteerism and in their specific service assignments. They serve under the immediate supervision of the host agency in which they are placed and under the general supervision of the Service Corps. For further information contact: Mr. James C. Thomson, Jr., Director, Maryland Service Corps, Room 310, 1123 N. Eutaw Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21201.

The Maryland Association for Publicly Supported Continuing Education

The Maryland Association for Publicly Supported Continuing Education (MAPSCE), an affiliate of the National Association for Public Continuing and Adult Education (NAPCAE), promotes and advances adult education provided by the public schools and community colleges throughout Maryland. Membership services: Rx, published five times yearly to provide adult educators with ideas and techniques for teaching; PACE Newsletter, published bi-monthly to keep the adult education community informed about programs, people and legislation; training and in-service provided through four regional workshops, an annual spring conference, and in cooperation with MSDE and other adult education organizations. For further information, contact: Bert Whitt, President, Baltimore County Public Schools, Towson, Maryland 21204.

Adult and Community Education Branch Division of Instruction, Maryland State Department of Education

The Adult and Community Education Branch, part of the Division of Instruction, is responsible for the establishment and maintenance of federal and State-funded programs in adult and community education. The mission of the branch is to enhance and expand adult and community education offerings in the State of Maryland. This is accomplished through grant awards to local agencies, inservice and technical assistance, monitoring and evaluation processes, research, and dissemination. Program areas include Adult Basic Education, Adult General Education, GED Instructional Programs, External Diploma Program, Evening High School, School-Community Centers Program, the Multi-Service Community Centers and Volunteer Programs. The branch office is located at the Maryland State Department of Education headquarters, 200 W. Baltimore Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21201.

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TOWARD A GENERAL PARADIGM OF PARTICIPATORY RESEARCH:
A Theoretical Discussion

Charles H. Adair[1]

Abstract

The world wide movement in participatory research is an effort to bring the principles of andragogy to practice and needs a better frame of reference. This theoretical discussion is intended to move towards that goal by examining theoretical sources outside the field of adult education.

In Adult Education, practitioners and academics have only ideas in common. The motives, priorities, working situations and rewards for professional activities differ, yet the ideas and spirit of practice we have together. The especial efforts in community development reveal this to be particularly true.

Sparked by leaders in the International Council for Adult Education, many academics and practitioners have joined to design and implement a new approach to development: participatory research. Projects in Africa, Canada, and Latin America have been conducted and reported. Distinguished critics, Arthur Stock and William Griffith, for example, have charged that only the label is new and the activity should not be called research at all. Advocates have had difficulty in replying.

It is the purpose of this paper to advance to dialogue by introducing theoretical explanation from sources outside the conventional literature of Adult Education in order to encourage a clearer and hopefully new frame of reference.

FRAME OF REFERENCE

The Capacity of Man in his Universe

Some basic assumptions are useful in a discussion of participatory research.

The universe is real; it is not a construct produced by man. It is integral, an event occuring in one part of the universe affects all other events. Unity exists.

Because the universe is integral it is determined. The actual events in the universe could not have happened many other ways and still have their identity.

Man's thoughts are real, they represent the universe, but they are not the universe. Nothing that is known is known absolutely.

Any man can interpret reality; all other creatures react to it. Only many can create the constructs he uses to control events. Constructs are similar to templates of transparent overlays which men place over the events of the universe in order to predict and control events.

HOW CHANGE OCCURS

Cultural Patterns Affecting Man's Conduct

Change may be viewed in three systems of culture (E. T. Hall); the ways men learn are functions producing change. In the formal system the past is more important than the future and learning results from trial and error with a strong conscious awareness of courses and effect relationships. The informal system conversely provides opportunities for learning by imitiation wherein people are unconscious that they are shaped. Technical systems are fully conscious, and learning is a matter of purposeful transmission in large part in the form of symbols and constructs.

---

[1] Charles H. Adair, Professor of Adult Education, Department of Educational Leadership, College of Education, The Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida

Environmental Determinants

Learning environments may be designed with the aid of four principles (O. K. Moore and A. R. Anderson). One environment is more conducive to learning than another if it both permits and facilitates the taking of more perspectives toward whatever is to be learned; if the activities carried on within it are more autotelic; it what is to be learned is more productive; and is more responsive to the learner's activities and permits the learner taking a more reflexive view of himself as a learner.

Limits on Learning

The formulation of new constructs and the ability of man to transcend his own situation to raise the level of experience in which he is consciously involved to a higher level of abstraction is essential to growth and human freedom.

THE PROCESS OF CHANGE THROUGH PARTICIPATORY RESEARCH

Participatory reserach is a divergent, rather than convergent, process in which the desired outcomes are determined by the participants. They become conscious of incongruities in their world through dialogue. The investigator does not impose his definition of need or priority but works to facilitate the dialogue and the activities which emerge. This process may be viewed as the sharing and mating of different ideas to create more vigorous and vital approaches to solving a community's problems. As participants interact critical thinking is stimulated and a commonly shared problem is identified. It is determined through processes Freire calls "problemitization", an organic approach treating society as a living entity.

Dr. Bud L. Hull has advanced seven principles to facilitate the activities of participatory reseracher. In brief, they are:

1. Research methods have ideological implications
2. A research process hould be of immediate and direct benefit to those involved
3. The entire community affected should be involved in the research process
4. If the goal is change the population affected should define the problem
5. The research process is part of a total educational experience
6. The process is dialetical in nature
7. The object of the process, like education, should be the liberation of human creative potential to mobilize resources to solve social problems.

IDEAS FROM MANAGEMENT SCIENCE

Charles Lindblom and C. Jackson Grayson, writing in different contexts, have argued that research must produce more "usable knowledge." Scientific theories and models rarely include adequately the factors of time and information essential to their implementation in real situations.

Chris Argyris and Donald Schon have suggested that many change agents "espouse theories" that are quite different than their "theories in use". Strategies which result in decreasing and increasing the gap are advanced as "Model I"and "Model II". Participatory researchers can find much that will assist them in changing their own research behavior in these models.

CONCLUSIONS

Participatory research is a method of investigation which utilizes one's capacity to view situations in an abstract way. It is a method which attempts to have men distinguish nature from culture. Nature cannot be changed because it is not created by man and is the result of previous events. Culture is the result of man's interaction with nature and with other men. Culture can be changed.

Participatory research requires change from the bottom rather than from the top. People are given the opportunity to evaluate their world and make a set of constructs which are tested in actual life to determine their validity. The participants can then decide which solutions would best eliminate their problems. The result of participatory research is reflective thinking. The participants learn to comprehend ordinary situations in a different way.

Technical learning is selected by the participants. It is not imposed on the participants as objects to be manipulated. People have the ability to choose what they need to know in order to obtain a state which they want.

Sources in the bibliography go beyond the specific comments in this paper. It is hoped by the author that others will join in a dialogue and that a meaningful and useful paradigm for participatory research will emerge.

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ABLE
(ADULT BASIC LEVEL EDUCATION)
PARENTING

Kathryn A. Alvestad[1]

Abstract

ABLE Parenting is an instructional program which has been designed to fill a need for parent education materials appropriate for adults who do not read well. It utilizes appropriate audio-visual material in combination with supplementary materials developed especially for adults who read on a first-to-fourth-grade level. It has a dual purpose in that it can be used as an independent parent education program or as a program of reading instruction in Adult Basic Education (ABE) classes.

BACKGROUND

Professionals from several local service agencies met with representatives of Calvert County Public Schools to identify specific needs of the community in the area of parent education. Evidence was found showing a need for programs which were appropriate to the needs of adults unable to read above the fourth year level. The Calvert County Adult Basic Education Parenting Instruction Project developed out of this identified need. It was funded by a grant from the Adult Basic Education Special Projects Office at the Maryland State Department of Education.

POPULATION

The population for this study included all persons whose reading ability fell into the range of 0 (unable to read) to 4 (approximately equivalent to the reading ability of a fourth grade student). According to the most recent data available (1970 Census) this was determined to be 10 percent of the population of Calvert County. Representatives of the local agencies cooperating in the project had identified numerous individuals in the target group who could benefit from a parenting program designed for undereducated adults. In addition a significant number of persons enrolled in Adult Basic Education classes had expressed interested in study materials on the subject of parenting.

OBJECTIVES, ACTIVITIES AND OUTCOMES

The major objectives of the project and the major activities and outcomes for each were as follows:

The first objective was to identify content areas of instruction which were of interest to the target group. A survey was taken among workers in the cooperating agencies to solicit ideas relative to content areas. A participant interview procedure was developed to obtain assistance from parents typical of the target group. Results of the survey and interviews indicated parents in the target group were interested in a whole-child approach to parenting with specific interest in the areas of discipline, communication, and child development.

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[1] Kathryn A. Alvestad, Parenting Project Facilitator, Calvert County Public Schools, Dares Beach Road, Prince Frederick, Maryland 20678

The second objective was to identify instructional approaches which were related to the content areas and appropriate for the target group. A literature search was conducted which yielded 87 citations relevant to parent education of the undereducated. The appropriate literature was reviewed and a bibliography was compiled.[2] The literature review indicated that a strongly audio-visual, participatory, and highly relevant instructional approach would be required.

The third objective was to select and/or develop instructional materials appropriate for the target group. A bibliographical search limited to existing parent education instructional materials was ordered and catalogs were thoroughly searched. Potentially useful materials were obtained for examination and evaluated. Thirty-five evaluations were made of materials which included packaged programs, filmstrip sets, movies, texts and workbooks, and audio-cassette series. The following criteria were developed for choosing material for use with the target group:

(1) It must have an audio-visual basis or be particularly suitable for use as back-up or supplementary material for an audio-visual presentation.
(2) It must have a variety of experiential activities and not rely heavily on reading for discussion.
(3) Its units or components must be limited in scope individually (one or two major ideas per presentation).
(4) Its terminological complexity (number of words with three or more syllables) must be relatively low (for audio-visual components) and its readability level must be 4 or less (for textual components).
(5) Its pace must be slower than average.
(6) It must not require significant teacher training in order to be effective.
(7) Its cost must be reasonable in terms of limited funds available to the cooperating agencies who will eventually implement the program.

The evaluations revealed that the reading level on all programs but one was six (grade level) or above, that the terminological complexity of most of the audio-visuals was very high, that the scope and organization of programs varied significantly, and that many were beyond the reach of local agencies financially. Many programs relied heavily on reading for discussion and several required a significant amount of teacher training. Programs which included films rather than filmstrips were judged to be more appropriate for the target group because filmstrips would accentuate a school-type atmosphere. A video-cassette format was judged to be even more appropriate because of the similarity to watching television. The Footsteps series was chosen as the audio-visual basis for the program because it was judged to be the most appropriate overall. It is available in both 16mm and video-cassette formats. Since the reading level of the Footsteps participant materials was too high, original participant materials were developed to supplement the film series. A Leader's Guide was also compiled. Footsteps is a 30-film series developed by a consortium made up of Applied Management Sciences, Silver Spring, Maryland, the Educational Film Center, Springfield, Virginia, and the Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland. Its development was sponsored by the U. S. Department of Education and it is distributed by the National AudioVisual Center in Washington, D. C.

Each Footsteps film is approximately 30 minutes long and includes a brief introduction by celebrity hosts, a 20-minute theme dramatization, and a short documentary with real-life families and child development experts. Ten of the 30 films were chosen for use in ABLE Parenting. The student booklets developed to supplement the films are very basic in text and rely heavily on illustrations as context clues. Each presents the main ideas of the film in logical order with little or no further development. Two of the ten booklets are adapted versions of bulletins published by the Cooperative Extension Service, University of Maryland, which were judged to be excellent in format, content, and illustration. The text was rewritten for 0-4 level readers and some reorganization was done.

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[2] Bibliography can be obtained by writing to the author

The fourth objective was to field test the materials and instructional approaches chosen for use. Two field tests were conducted. The first was a single six-week series of weekly classes taught by the project facilitator to determine the usefullness of potential program materials. The second field test was a six-week series of weekly classes taught by seven instructors at five different sites. An in-service was held for instructors. There were two classes in urban non-ABE sites, two classes in rural non-ABE sites, and one class in a rural ABE setting. A total of 42 persons participated in the classes. They were referred to the program through a variety of local agencies and professionals.

The recruitment procedure which was developed to obtain referrals consisted of the following activities:

(1) Contact all participating agencies to inform them of the date, meeting time, place, and content of the program. Meet with workers in each agency to discuss the referral procedure. Leave a memorandum and referral forms with each worker.
(2) Contact school principals, teachers, counselors, special education teachers, pupil personnel workers and any other school personnel who may have contact with potential participants. Give them information about the program and the referral procedure.
(3) Send announcements to all ABE and GED students inviting them to register for the program.
(4) Place posters in the Social Services Office and in the Health Department Children's Clinic.
(5) Send an informational letter to all local physicians, clergymen, law enforcement officers, librarians, and judges.
(6) Submit newspaper articles and radio spots to announce the program to the general public.

Criteria were developed to determine a participant's qualification in the "0-4" reading ability category. A detailed registration form was developed which required a significant amount of reading ability. Any participant who could not complete the form ledgibly with all information (a) spelled correctly and (b) in the appropriate place qualified as a "0-4" level reader.

The fifth objective was to report on the effectiveness of the materials and instructional approaches. A Parental Assessment Evaluation instrument was developed to determine whether any learning and attitude change occurred among the participants as a result of the program. Because of incomplete data and the small number of participants, no significant results were produced by this evaluation. (The Parental Assessment Evaluation is also intended to be useful as an intake tool through which an instructor can learn which of the ten units of instruction need to be presented to a specific group of participants.) Three subjective evaluation tools were developed to augment the objective evaluation. Fifty-three participant evaluations were obtained. Participants who were able, completed them independently. Those who were not were interviewed by the instructor. Twenty-two evaluations of the materials and instructional approach were completed by the instructors. Seven evaluations of the instructional approach were made by four supervisory persons. (Each class was observed at least once.) Results of the subjective evaluations showed very good overall satisfaction on the part of all parties with the materials and instructional approach. Numerous valuable suggestions were made such as simplifying the discussion guide, giving more examples through illustrations in the Leader's Guide, using more language experience activities for follow-up to the films, reinforcing the message of the films by referring to previous films, and emphasizing informality in the class meetings. The suggestions have been implemented in the final revision of the program materials.

The final phase of evaluation involved review of the ABLE Parenting materials by a child development specialist, an adult education reading specialist, and personnel at the Maryland State Department of Education. Recommendations for revisions were made and incorporated into the final product.

The sixth objective was to work cooperatively with community agencies in the development of the program. A liaison person was identified in each agency, and those persons collectively made up an Advisory Committee which held regular monthly meetings. The Committee was very actively involved in all phases of the project and provided invaluable professional and practical assistance.

LIMITATIONS

The location of parent education materials was made difficult by the lack of a comprehensive listing of available materials. Distributor policies which do not allow release of materials for review meant that some evaluations had to be made on the basis of catalog descriptions and other non-specific means.

Traditional methods of participant recruitment such as posters, flyers, and newspaper announcements were not considered appropriate for this target group. Methods which appear to be most successful (those involving personal contact) were more difficult to utilize in a rural area.

Collection of data became somewhat difficult because there was doubt regarding the ability of participants to understand and respond to what was being asked of them.

Transportation and child care problems were significant among potential participants, and were difficult to overcome in a sparsely populated area.

IMPLICATIONS

ABLE Parenting has been found to be appealing to its intended audience. The participant materials have been professionally evaluated and shown to be appropriate in content and reading difficulty for the intended audience. It seems to have dual potential. One application would be that of an alternative or supplementary program of reading instruction in Adult Basic Education classes. Another would be that of an independent parent education program utilized in a ready setting where recruitment difficulties are minimized (i.e., churches, child health clincs). Controlled testing is needed to determine its effectiveness in teaching basic parenting skills and producing positive attitude change in participants. The most promising target area for further testing would be a large urban area with a predominantly young, lower-socioeconomic population. Personal contact recruiting would be more feasible and transportation more manageable in an urban area. Such an area would also be likely to have a higher density of parents in the target group.

ARMY BASIC SKILLS
EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT EFFORTS

Clinton L. Anderson[1]

Abstract

The Army is currently involved in redesigning its basic skills program. The new program is envisioned as a progressive continuum of educational achievement using the latest in educational technology. The objectives are to develop a competency based, military related prototype of basic skills instruction for Army personnel and to provide an opportunity for nonhigh school graduates to earn a recognized credential. This need is intensified by current resource constraints, by increasing numbers of mid-1980 accessions who will require basic skills education, by the smaller population from which to recruit, and by the growing complexity of military weapons systems.

The Army and all Armed Services receive graduates and nongraduates from nearly all of the nation's secondary educational institutions. From their formal educational foundation, these individuals are encouraged to grow and mature into adult learners--some are successful, others less so.

The Army defines basic educational skills as reading, writing, speaking, listening, and computational skills essential for military job performance and soldier career development. Dave Berry, in his book on Army education, traces Army basic skills efforts back as far as the Revolutionary War when General George Washington told his chaplain at Valley Forge to teach soldiers how to read. We have been at it ever since in one way or another.

Marvin Stone, editor of the US News and World Report, stated in an editorial on 7 September 1981, entitled "Soon, a Nation of Illiterates?": "Across the nation, overall reading abilities have fallen to abysmally low levels. . . . The problem is serious. . . . We fail . . . at a time when our highly technological industries demand more knowledge and skills than at any time in our history.

"Already there are more than 23 million functionally illiterate adults in this country. The danger is that the alarming decline in reading skills will lead in another two decades to the creation of an elite class of no more than 30 percent of the population that is literate. That could bring about a cleavage in society that carries with it the seeds of great tragedy."

If the information in the article is a true forecast of our future, the Army must prepare to meet this challenge. The military services will compete with colleges, business, and industry for the shrinking population from which to recruit in the mid-1980s. In addition, the growing complexity of the military weapon systems will require a higher level of competency among members of the services.

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Although many have tried and some have demanded, the Army has not found a "smart pill" or "quick fix" to its reading, math and language problems. Emphasis came in mid-1970 to resolve the criticality of the situation. A combination of events led to the development of the current Basic Skills Education Program (BSEP). First, a 1977 General Accounting Office report gave credence to the belief that the Army's mission and soldiers' welfare were adversely affected by soldiers' inability to read. It challenged the Army and other services to address literacy remediation for service members who needed it. Second, during the 1978 Department of Defense budget review, the House and Senate Appropriation Committee directed that on-duty educational programs be directly related to military requirements, such as remedial or skill training, and that high school completion be conducted during off-duty time. Third, in June 1978, the Chief of Staff of the Army, General Bernard Rogers, asked how the Army planned to solve its "reading problem." The answer given to him was three-pronged:

First, sound enlistment standards coupled with preenlistment basic skills development will permit a better quality recruit for entry into active duty. Second, in-service remedial BSEP will raise soldiers' competencies in reading and math to meet requirements. And third, readability and usability of Army publications will be improved thereby lessening excessive reading requirements. Together, working in concert, these three major initiatives still represent our plan of attack.

With regard to enlistment standards and a better quality recruit, the Army is doing quite well at the present time. Since the October 1980 institution of revised versions of the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery, we find less than one percent of the active Army recruits have very low ability with basic skills (i.e., less than fifth grade level as measured by the Adult Basic Learning Examination). Because the recruiting market is good, nonhigh school graduates are excluded from active Army enlistment during FY 82 unless they have a score of 50 or above on the Armed Forces Qualification Test. That approximately equals a general-technical (GT) score of 100, a mental category of IIIa, and a ninth grade reading level.

The Army has made progress with regard to readability and usability of publications. Training and Doctrine Command, The Adjutant General's Office, and others have established standards for preparing manuscripts for publications. They have set up stringent editorial services to insure publications can be easily understood and used by soldiers. They have maximized use of training aids, multimedia, graphics, and other mechanisms. Flak has been thrown by those who misunderstood the Army's "comic book style." However, attractiveness, relevance, and sensitivity to readers' needs have produced training manuals, pamphlets, and Army regulations which more readily portray their intended messages. Readers can grasp what the Army wishes to communicate.

Between April 1980 and March 1981, there were more than 159,000 BSEP II enrollments which represented about 40 hours of instruction per enrollment. In addition, there were nearly 25,000 enrollments in the Army's off-duty high school completion program. This represents a substantial investment in time, manpower, and resources. Unfortunately, BSEP has no common curriculum nor a coherent assessment process to determine if functional requirements for mastering basic skills are being met.

On 7 August 1979, the Secretary of the Army and the Chief of Staff of the Army signed a policy statement that the Army would provide on-duty, job related basic skills development for soldiers to improve:

Likelihood of performing satisfactorily both in training and on the job.

Capability of functioning effectively in the Army community outside the immediate work setting.

Potential for completing high-quality, off-duty high school, college, vocational-technical, apprenticeships, or other educational programs.

Potential for pursuing the wide variety of educational programs covered by the Veterans Education Assistance Program (VEAP) or other veterans' benefits.

This charter kicked off the Army Continuing Education System (ACES) Improvement Plan, part of which is the development of a functional basic skills curriculum.

Over the next few years, we expect BSEP to evolve into a fully developed continuum of educational opportunities or a system which:

Clearly defines required soldier competencies for reading, writing, speaking, listening, and math skills. We will no longer rely on reading grade levels.

Can assess whether soldiers possess the identified skills. We will no longer use the Adult Basic Level Examination, Test of Adult Basic Education, etc.

Has a common curriculum that can be used to remedy identified soldier deficiencies. We will no longer rely solely on a contractor's ability to produce a suitable curriculum.

Provides a common focus for on/off-duty educational development. We will no longer have a disconnect between on-duty BSEP and off-duty high school completion. There will be one program and one contractor providing both an on-duty and off-duty program of instruction at a given locality.

Contains incentives for soldiers to demonstrate mastery of basic skills expected within the program. There will be some credentialing aspects to the effort.

Uses the latest educational technology in delivery systems, e.g., computer-assisted instruction and intelligent video discs.

The continuum of basic skills development will be tied more closely to educational standards and professional development necessary for reenlistment and promotion to the rank of staff sergeant. Ideally, most soldiers will have the required competencies before entry into active military service. They can then sharpen these skills through use, individual maturity, and adult learning experiences. Some deficiencies can be remedied by soldiers while in the training base. The remainder are left to be cared for while the soldier develops on-the-job and operates within the military environment.

As we improve BSEP, I believe competency-based education will go a long way to meet the challenge of the future.

THE IMPACT OF CONTINUING EDUCATION ON PARTICIPANTS' SELF-CONCEPT

Michael Beaudoin[1]

Abstract

This paper summarizes findings and implications of evaluation research conducted on two college-level continuing education programs for adults entering, or employed in, health and human services occupations. Empirical and observational data revealed that involvement in such programs resulted in significant impact upon participants' self-concept and their capacity for future personal growth and professional development.

As a result of the proliferation of programs designed to enhance the job skills and increase the occupational mobility of adults, considerable research has been conducted to determine the efficacy of education and training programs and their impact on the cognitive development and vocational skills of participants.

Relatively little theoretical or applied research, however, has been forthcoming that provides useful information and insight about the impact of new learning programs on the affective domain of adult participants. Pre- and post-assessments may reveal useful data about improved communication skills, employment patterns, and other significant outcomes, but what is the impact of such programs on the individual participant's self-definition, self-esteem, and self-confidence? What new patterns may be detected in their attitudes and behaviors which ultimately may be the most critical factors in determining capacity for productive and sustained learning among adults?

Continuing education programs that provide appropriately designed instructional resources and a supportive learning environment over a sustained period (e.g., 1 to 2 1/2 years) can contribute demonstrably to the developmental tasks of the adult years as they have been identified by Havighurst (1953). Such programs can be particularly beneficial to adults experiencing mid-life (35-45) to late-adult (57-65) transitions that frequently demand adaptation to changes in career status compounded by physical and interpersonal changes.

Life transition stages popularized in the literature of recent years are paralleled by significant milestones of ego development as postulated by Loevinger *et al.*, (1976). These ego stages reflect character development evolving from an impulsive, self-protective level; through conformity and conscientiousness; on to individualistic and autonomous stages; and ultimately to a more fully integrated ego status. This ego development process parallels a cognitive style that moves from conceptual simplicity to increased complexity wherein the individual is able to distinguish process from outcome, construct ideas, discern patterns, tolerate ambiguity, and maintain objectivity.

When we examine ego stages in relation to cognitive styles and then attempt to link both to perceptions of education, we can discern characteristic attitudes toward self as well as corresponding values ascribed to education. We note that in earlier stages of the ego continuum, education is seen as a concrete necessity for job security with possible extrinsic value. As the individual becomes increasingly self-aware, education is more likely to be perceived as a goal or process that can affect a person throughout life.

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But what is the correlation between perception of self and education? Is education viewed in a more positive light as a result of ego development or is ego development a function of education experience? What is the impact of continuing education on the affective domain of re-entering adult learners? Does involvement in a positive learning experience contribute to ego development and improved self-concept among adults?

This paper will summarize evaluation research findings concerning participant attitude and value changes as a result of involvement in continuing education. Two programs specifically designed to enhance the career mobility of adults were examined. The first is a bilingual vocational education program offering a one-year, college-level certificate in human services to Maine's French speaking ethnic minority population. Pre- and post-program data, as well as six-month follow-up data covering three one-year cycles of this University of Maine program, were reviewed and analyzed. The second program to be considered is a baccalaureate degree completion program for health professionals delivered throughout the United States via directed independent study and a required summer residency on the Maine campus of the institution (Saint Joseph's College).

Evaluation research has provided some provocative information and insight about the performance and perceptions of participants in the Bilingual/Bicultural Human Services Certificate Program after its third year of operation within the University of Maine system.[2] Designed to recruit and train adults to work with Franco-Americans in institutional and community settings, the program's primary objective was to develop occupational skills and improve English language proficiency of unemployed Franco-American adults in order to facilitate their access to positions in human services agencies in their home communities.

For Franco-Americans, the largest minority group in the state (30%), employment and income patterns indicate high rates of underemployment and unemployment. These patterns are the result of several factors, including: limited English-speaking ability and a relatively low level of self-definition, self-esteem, and self-confidence. The correlation between educational attainment and employability is clear for the Franco-American. Only 37% of Maine's Franco-American population over 25 years old have completed high school and only 4% have attended one or more years of college, compared to 1% and 9.4% respectively for the non-Franco population. Franco-Americans are not only employed in lower level jobs than the majority population, but reside in areas where the unemployment rate is above the state average. With limited education, Franco-Americans' incomes generally remain fixed at lower levels.

Because Franco-Americans have not seen themselves adequately represented in the mainstream workforce and do not receive the recognition and support needed to promote pride and confidence, they often experience a loss of self-esteem, develop a negative self-concept, and harbor serious doubts about their ability to contribute creatively and productively to society or to their immediate group. Education and training programs must address these realities, and any assessment of such programs must consider their impact upon this particular dimension.

Prior to entering the program, 65% of the students were unemployed, and the total family income was less than $9,000 for two-thirds of the students. Just over 75% of the students were female, and the average age of the student was 39 (ranging from ages 18 to 69). Most noticeable at the start of the program was the shyness and the hesitancy of many students to voice their opinions either in or out of the classroom. Staff and faculty generally agreed that students felt very inadequate and that most of them lacked the self-confidence needed to freely express themselves in either English or French.

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[2] Much of the evaluation research on this program, as summarized herein, was conducted by Ms. Tracy Bigney of the Social Science Research Institute and Dr. James Gallagher of the Department of Sociology at the University of Maine at Orono.

In order to evaluate both the process and product of this one-year program, a questionnaire was administered to participants at the beginning and the end of each nine-month program cycle. Through this pre-post measurement, we were able to identify changes attributable, at least in part, to the program.

Three groups of approximately 100 Franco-American adult students successfully completed the program with a remarkably low attrition rate. Following their involvement in the program, nearly all respondents exhibited more positive attitudes toward themselves, their language, and their ethnic heritage. Self-confidence, enthusiasm for learning, and optimism for playing more productive roles and having a more satisfying life replaced feelings of low self-worth, fatalism, and ambivalence about their ethnicity.

Nearly all students (96%) agreed that their language capabilities (in both languages) had increased, upon completion of the program, and were adequate to work in the human services field. 90% reported satisfaction with their job training and a fairly high degree of confidence in their vocational abilities, and they felt prepared to get a job with a human services agency.

The socio-economic status of Franco-Americans is related not only to language competence and vocational training, but also to the nature of self-confidence and self-esteem. Further, there is a strong interactive effect between these variables. Data from the questionnaire and site visits provide strong evidence that self-confidence and self-esteem rose dramatically. In fact, this change represents one of the most impressive achievements of the program.

Although there are many ways to conceptualize these variables, we constructed three scales: self-concept, life goals, and self-esteem. The literature suggests that, in general, strength of self-concept is directly related to perceived ability to set and achieve goals. Strength of self-concept was measured through the use of a semantic differential scale which asks the respondent to rate key concepts across several dimensions. The scores on each dimension are then factor analyzed. This allows us to determine the groupings or clusters. These groupings are viewed as the underlying factors which the respondent uses in perceiving and defining the key concept; when the key is "me", the data represent the factors which make up the respondent's self-defintion. We found several clusters emerging; one of these, which we have labeled as strength of self-definition, includes three dimensions: assertiveness, independence, and powerfulness.

A factor score (in effect, a summary score) is then generated. Any change in this score representing a significant increase in the strength of the students' self-concept is presumably related to the effects of the program. We may then relate this shift to change in the life-goal scale and the self-esteem scale. We also noted an interesting change in the Franco-Anglo dimension: a significant shift toward the Franco end. Apparently, one effect of the program was to strengthen the students' definition of self as a Franco-American.

The life-goal scale represents the perceived ability to set and achieve what the respondent defines as worthwhile goals. Again there was a significant upward shift. If we assume this scale represents an interval level of measurement, we can correlate the change here with change in the strength of self-definition and conclude that there is a positive and significant relationship. Similar results were obtained when we examined the self-esteem scale. From this data, we conclude that the program produced significant changes in the students' self-definition, self-esteem, and perceived ability to set and achieve worthwhile goals in life.

These conclusions are also supported by subjective data obtained from the site visits and staff reports. Often heard were many testimonials to the changes which occurred; comments that the program "changed my life" were not unusual. While students appeared to underestimate the benefits they obtained from individual courses, in retrospect they recognized changes in their own attitudes and increased pride in being Franco-Americans as a result of the cumulative effect of the overall program.

Effects of the program's bicultural emphasis can be seen in responses about how the program affected participants' feelings about being Franco-Americans (e.g., "It has strengthened my association with my heritage and helped me consider its value on my life"). Bicultural course content was not solely responsible for heightened cultural awareness and self-confidence. Program staff played a key role by helping students recognize the value of skills they already possessed and by serving as models of proud, successful Franco-Americans. At each site, students formed a cohesive group, with a strong identity of being Franco-Americans and benefited from an active peer support system.

The self-awareness and skills gained from courses, the self-confidence and experience gained from the field work, and the increased language competence all combined to create a new sense of identity and potential. Participants were able to fashion a unified concept of self, understand their relationship to the world around them, and--in a word--to become initiators, rather than pawns.

In examining the 20% drop-out rate from this program, we found varied reasons for withdrawal: family responsibilities, logistical difficulties, illness, or unanticipated problems were the most frequently cited causes. It is interesting to note that the highest casualty rate was among related individuals. Therefore, we considered the possibility that the drop-outs, as a group, exhibited different characteristics from the group of students who remained in the program. In terms of the demographic variables (age, sex, and residence), there do not appear to be any significant differences. Prior employment is also about the same. When we examined language variables, we again found no significant differences. However, when we examined the self-concept data, some significant differences arose; the factor scores for strength of the drop-outs' self-definition, life-goal scores, and self-esteem scores were all lower than the pre-test scores for those who remained.

A follow-up survey of graduates conducted six months after they completed the program indicated that there was a continuing impact on participants' lives, regardless of their occupational status. Approximately 1/3 had obtained human service related employment since graduation and 1/3 were continuing their education. This preliminary data suggests that it is possible to provide quality bilingual vocational preparation in a one-year college level program that will enable adults to function effectively in rewarding positions in their home communities. Further, it provides some convincing evidence that participants' self-concept can be significantly enhanced to the degree that they may become better equipped emotionally to deal with subsequent events in their lives.

A dramatic illustration of this phenomenon is seen in the case of one particular student who, within the same week, graduated from the program with 30 college credits after a 23 year hiatus from formal education, assumed a responsible, direct care position in a social services agency after many dissatisfied years of night-shift work in a factory, and obtained a divorce after an unhappy marriage of 17 years!

The demonstrable impact on affective outcomes among adults participating in learning programs is not limited to those who are undereducated and underemployed. A 1980 survey of 167 health professionals from throughout the United States who graduated from St. Joseph's College's External Degree Program provided some revealing statistics regarding the graduates' attitudes not only toward the program itself, but also about themselves following their involvement in this particular educational experience.

Whereas most of these students (primarily registered nurses) had previously felt their mobility was hampered without a baccalaureate level degree, 62% responded that they had since experienced upward career changes. Perhaps even more significant was the fact that 94% felt the program had been "a personally enriching experience", and 95% would recommend it to their colleagues. While findings clearly point to job-related benefits for the majority of graduates, the satisfaction of having achieved the degree regardless of its benefits ranked high among outcomes realized.

Informal follow-up contact with participants in the months following completion of their studies elicited repeated comments to the effect that this learning experience had changed their lives and that they viewed themselves, their colleagues, and their patients in more positive ways. Although most had been away from formal education for many years, had expressed disillusionment about the efficacy of continuing education, and had expressed serious doubts about ever completing a bachelor's degree, 23% are currently enrolled in a Master's program and an additional 46% plan to pursue graduate studies.

The response pattern suggests not only a dramatic change in attitude toward the value of education as an on-going and fulfilling process, but it also represents a subtle shift in self-concept toward a more authentic personal and professional self. Successful completion of an academically rigorous independent study program demanding increasingly complex cognitive skills has also resulted in the emergence of a more autonomous ego.

Although the conclusions summarized above seem intuitively correct, there is no direct evidence that all the changes we have described can be attributed solely to the programs under review. Since we did not have control groups, we cannot be certain that some changes are not related to factors external to the programs. The scope and resources of this study precluded expanding the analysis in this fashion. Also, we do not know to what degree the changes in self-concept cited represent a long-range phenomenon; this question can only be answered with a long-term investigation.

An additional point must be mentioned here: women aged 25 to 45 comprised 75 to 95% of the student population within the two programs examined for purposes of this study. We cannot, with the data available, determine to what extent program outcomes affecting self-concept might have differed if the participants had, for example, been a largely male group.

But we can say with some certainty that, while the changes observed and described may not be attributed solely to program participation, it is clear that successful involvement in a supportive learning environment had a dramatic impact on the self-concept, personal growth and professional development of a group of "high risk" students who are now better equipped, not only vocationally, but also emotionally, to establish and pursue life-long goals.

FACULTY EVALUATION OF STUDENT LEARNING CONTRACTS IN A UNIVERSITY-WITHOUT-WALLS PROGRAM

Anne Bostwick[1]
David L. Boggs

Abstract

Learning contracts are the keystone to completion of degree requirements in many external degree programs. Evaluation is a critical component in assuring the quality of learning. This study analyzes faculty and student performance in stating and implementing evaluation methods, evidence, and criteria for specific learning contracts in a university without walls program. Students perceptions of the appropriateness and clarity of criteria applied are examined. History and scope of the program is provided.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM AND METHODOLOGY

This study of faculty evaluation of student learning contracts was done in the Capital University-Without-Walls program in Columbus, Ohio. Specifically we analyzed the performance of faculty in the evaluation process by:

1. examining methods, evidence and criteria (standards) used by faculty in determining whether students met the objectives stated in the learning plan;

2. comparing the evaluation methods, evidence and criteria applied by faculty to those stated by students in the learning contract; and

3. reporting students' perceptions of appropriateness and clarity of criteria applied by faculty in the evaluation process.

Two data sources were employed in this analysis: first a content analysis of 41 learning contracts completed by 26 students in a variety of subject matter areas between January and April, 1981; second, a mail survey of student perceptions of the faculty role in evaluating their learning contracts.

Wald (1978) and Chickering (1977) testify to the pivotal nature of the learning contract. Wald says it captures, more than any other academic process, the creativity and potential for individualized instruction (p. 224). Chickering says its power comes from its capacity to address the particular strengths and weaknesses of each student. It also provides opportunity to individualize learning activities, time, methods and standards for evaluation (p. 96). Wald provided an analysis of the richness of interaction in mentor/student relationships via videotapes of their contract planning discussions. Chickering's frame of reference for categorizing learning objectives and for evaluating their attainment provided useful conceptual tools for our analysis of the learning contracts.

In practice, of course, evaluation is closely related to learning objectives or purposes. The latter are often restated in descriptions of the evaluative process. Purposes, according to Chickering and others, are stated in terms of a) processes, b) products or performances, and c) learning outcomes. These constructs will guide our analysis of learning contracts:

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(a) process purposes state processes in which the learner expects to engage, e.g., "to explore the works of, to contrast the views of, to read articles on," etc. Strictly speaking, if the processes are completed, and no outcomes have been specified, the learners purposes have been met. Some evaluations simply state that the work was satisfactorily completed;

(b) product or performance purposes specify more clearly the evidence on which evaluation may rest. Examples include "to write a paper, to prepare a report, to design and implement a program." Learning outcomes from such products are still not specified. If criteria for judging the quality of products are not specified then learners and faculty are handicapped;

(c) learning outcomes purposes describe hoped-for changes to occur as a result of engaging in the processes and creating the products or carrying out the performances. Examples include "to understand reasons for Edward VIII's abdication, to know some of the effects of discrimination, to develop counseling skills." Learning outcomes lend themselves to defensible evaluation criteria or standards on which the mentor's judgment can be based.

BACKGROUND

A brief history and overview of Capital University-Without-Walls (CUWW) follows in order to establish the context of the study. In 1972 The Union for Experimenting Colleges and Universities started a University Without Walls (UWW) which was housed at Antioch College, Yellow Springs, Ohio. The philosophy of the program included recognition of learning acquired outside the "walls" of the traditional classroom setting, prior to enrollment in a college degree program as well as learning obtained under the sponsorship of that program.

In 1979, three of the Union's four University Without Walls centers in Ohio -in Cleveland, Columbus, and Dayton - became a part of Capital University and moved its graduate and undergraduate offices to Cincinnati. Each of the three centers has its own coordinator who supervises a number of Core Faculty Advisors; by 1981, each center had one full-time Advisor and enough part-time Advisors for its student population. These Advisors are drawn from faculty ranks at a number of institutions, primarily Capital itself in the Columbus center. They also include some well qualified community people and some who have held traditional academic positions.

New learning through CUWW is done in the form of learning contracts. The standardized form for a contract requires the student and faculty mentor to provide 1) a description or catalog - like summary of the content; 2) specific learning objectives, preferably in action words; 3) learning methods and activities including books, persons and other resources to be used; and 4) evaluation methods, evidence and criteria by which learning will be assessed. Upon completion of the contract student and mentor each provide an evaluation on the forms provided.

At the time of the study, a printed Resource Faculty Guide was available in limited numbers, but no training or information sessions were offered. Information about the process and the program therefore came from the required forms and the student, or through an assertive faculty member's individual request for additional assistance. Core faculty advisors oversee learning contracts designed with resource faculty but the monitoring is general since contracts are apt to be outside their specific area of expertise. Students coming into the program participate in a series of orientation sessions which include some guidelines on the design of learning contracts. Not surprisingly, however, the range of specificity and quality in the written contracts is great.

FINDINGS

Learning contracts. Four distinct learning modes were evident in the learning contracts. The first mode, comprising 22 percent of the contracts, was a college level course or group study taken at Capital University or another college with the faculty mentor usually also being the course instructor. Course objectives and evaluation methods were merely lifted from the course syllabus and transferred to the learning contract. Hypothetically then, one would expect to see a close match between the way evaluation methods, evidence and criteria were stated by students in the contract and how those were applied by faculty mentors. As might be expected, syllabi varied widely in their specificity about learning objectives or purposes and the evaluation process. On one extreme were contracts with objectives stated in behavioral terms and the percent of grade awarded for attainment of each. On the other extreme were contracts with objectives stated in terms of processes to be performed or products to be produced and judged against general criteria such as "the paper will be judged on its quality." In this first learning contract mode the evaluation process for UWW students, was subject to the same limitations that characterizes evaluation in traditional higher education when judgments are based on general criteria. When evaluation methods, evidence and criteria were specified in advance on the contract in the form of tests, papers and attendance, the ideal faculty evaluation contained test scores, comments about the quality of papers and class participation or other products or performances (a descriptive narrative including evidence and criteria) and a statement about the level of difficulty of the material and level of student performance (a judgment usually including a letter grade).

The second learning contract mode identified in our analysis, comprising 22 percent of the contracts, was an independent study plan. It was similar to the first mode in that faculty mentors determined learning objectives and the evaluation process to be followed. This form of contract seemed to be based on syllabi for courses taught previously by the faculty mentor. Therefore, the same observations made regarding the continuum of specificity in purposes and evaluation process in the first mode apply here as well.

An important difference however was that this learning contract mode included a conference or series of them between learners and mentors. These took the place of class discussions and gave instructors opportunities to probe for understanding and provide clarification in a manner probably superior to group situations. Written exams were required in half of these contracts, but in only one instance did a faculty mentor include test scores as part of his evaluation. The faculty portion of the contract asks, "Did the student meet the objectives in the learning plan?" and "How did you verify that these were met?" The most common response in this second learning mode can be paraphrased as "Yes -- as certified through our weekly discussions."

The third learning contract mode, comprising 43 percent, was also through independent study. However, objectives and evaluation process were mutually developed by faculty mentors and students. Faculty mentor interaction with students in the design of the learning contract is greater in this mode than in the first two. There were more meetings to determine the direction or purposes of the contract, resources to be used, clarification of issues related to the topics, and probing for evidence of learning. Initial planning was uniformly extensive. The extensiveness of subsequent interaction was variable.

In this mode a shift occurred in the evidence and criteria used in evaluation. Journals, diaries, reports of field trips and interviews, and tangible products useable in the student's life or work such as a slide-tape presentation, a pre-retirement program or a household budget, replaced term papers and tests as evidence of learning. The criteria applied in determining the quality of learning outcomes from these contracts are difficult to describe. While faculty mentors seemed to accept the evidence at face value, their written comments indicate that intuitive and internalized criteria came into play. In meetings with students they probed learning through readings and interviews. They examined completed products. They analyzed the contents of student developed case studies and reports. They frequently commented on the depth of student involvement in the topic and, more often than in the first two learning contract modes, judged the level of learning to be advanced and the quality excellent.

The weaknesses in the evaluation process for this mode were twofold. First faculty did not typically attempt to specify for students in advance the criteria or standards they would apply. Hence these were not reflected in the students' portion of the learning contract. Second, evaluative judgments made by faculty were often stated so succinctly as to leave open to question the specific criteria on which their judgments rested. A statement such as "Student met objectives as verified through discussions about assigned readings and appraisal of written material in her journal" was all too common.

Finally, a fourth learning contract mode, comprising only 10 percent of those in our survey, could be called the *combination* contract. It had all the characteristics of the third mode. In addition attendance at *some group learning experience*, sometimes under the direction of the faculty mentor was required. Neither process, nor product nor learning outcomes were specified for the group activity. The entire experience seemed to be ignored in the evaluations.

Objectives and evaluation. Several observations can be made about the form and substance of learner objectives or purposes and about the relationships between these and the evaluation process. Chickering's conceptual framework for specifying purposes, as provided above, is the basis for our analysis.

First, students often present objectives (sometimes tranferring them from a course syllabus) in the form of processes, products or performances, and learning outcomes all mixed together. An inherent hierarchy or order may or may not be the basis for a particular combination of objectives. For example, a student's objectives were; 1) to gain understanding of the U.S. Supreme Court and its justices...(learning outcome); 2) to contrast the three branches of government (process); 3) to identify legal terminology used by the court (process).

Second, more often than not, objectives were stated in process or product/performance terms. Statements of learning outcomes to be acquired or derived were less frequently identified.

Third, the portion of the contract in which students indicated criteria by which their work would be evaluated and evidence of learning they would submit was the weakest part of nearly every contract. It was clearly easier for students to state the evidence they would submit than to specify the criteria that would be applied in its evaluation. For example, 1) I will orally discuss reading assignments, 2) I will develop a case file, 3) I will take three tests, and 4) I will submit a completed program.

Fourth, evaluations completed by faculty mentors tended to be rich in narrative about the effort expended by their students in completing learning contracts, the evidence of learning students submitted, and the mearsures taken by the faculty mentor to assess learning. The narratives often mirror the flexibility of learning methods possible within learning contracts. Some sample statements are provided; 1) During the meetings she showed me the material she had collected, summarized her readings, and eventually began to evaluate her findings. I left the choice of emphasis, direction, entirely to her. Certain areas of study I suggested did not interest her as much as others, and so the discussion guided her toward refining her method, 2) She prepared answers to specific questions which were submitted and she did a research project as indicated above. Pamela was carefully questioned during our sessions regarding each topic discussed and covered in her readings.

Fifth, faculty mentors tended to make judgments about the quality of learning outcomes based on intuitive standards developed through years of experience in reading papers, quizing students and critiquing student projects. Some examples follow; 1) The student completed the research and wrote an in-depth paper following the established methodology of historical writing; 2) The objectives for this course were met as assessed by in-depth question-discussion periods and final case study written report.

As is the case in higher education generally, the criteria by which the quality of these reports, interviews, and products would be judged were not provided. Yet the distinction between judgments and criteria on which they are based needs to be explicit so as to legitimize the intuitive leap from one to the other.

Student perceptions. Students rated the appropriateness and clarity of evaluation criteria used by faculty and estimated the extent of their involvement in determining evaluation methods. On a five point scale, with five the highest rating, respondents gave 4.6 ratings to both clarity and appropriateness.

Perceptions of involvement in determining the evaluation method were analyzed by mode of learning contract. The fourth mode was eliminated from the analysis because only one person had this type of learning contract. The continuum of involvement was 0% to 100%. The mean score of involvement for students in the first mode of learning (course or group instruction) was 12.5% for students in the second mode (independent study with a predetermined syllabus) the mean was 58.3%; for students in the third mode (independent study mutually designed) the mean was 70.0%.

Our analysis of contracts in the second mode indicated far less involvement by students than they perceived themselves to have. Perhaps the written contracts do not accurately reflect the flexibility afforded students. Or perhaps faculty have convinced students that developing such contracts involves more participation than is actually the case.

CONCLUSIONS

Imposing a uniform system or process for evaluation would compromise the power of learning contracts to build on individual strengths and address individual weaknesses. Clearly, faculty and students need help in formulating learning objectives and in distinguishing between evaluation judgments and the methods, evidence, and criteria on which these are based. It may be even more important to provide this help to mentors drawn from the community. It is important to guide faculty and students in designing academically sound learning contracts.

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ADULT EDUCATION IN MODERN GREECE: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

Marcie Boucouvalas[1]

Abstract

The year 1821 marked the beginning of Greece's freedom from Turkish occupation and ushered in the development of a continuously growing adult education enterprise in the country. English-language literature regarding the nature and scope of country-wide efforts, however, is virtually non-existent. This exploratory study was undertaken in an effort to fill that gap. In-depth interviews with professionals and consumers throughout the country, from national ministerial to local levels, as well as the reading of Greek-language publications provided the data base. Findings revealed a well-organized enterprise with sound philosophical and conceptual base. Implications abound for other countries and future research.

Modern Greece has been ravaged and plagued by wars and strife, factors which have interfered with the growth and development of adult education within the country. Since the Greek War of Independence in 1821, however, which marked Greece's freedom from Turkish occupation, a growing adult education enterprise has been developing. The English-language literature dealing with adult education in Greece, however, is virtually non-existent. Although a few of the Greek-language documents dealing with statutes and the like have been translated into English, none has been published for worldwide distribution. Other than the Greek-rooted material, written primarily by the National Director of Adult Education, only a few fugitive documents, written by UNESCO consultants to the country, and a dissertation have been written in English, the most recent being in 1973 (Fourre, 1968; Townsend-Coles, 1973; Tryphonopoulos, 1972).

PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Prompted by this discovery, the presently reported exploratory study was undertaken. Upon the invitation and welcome from the National Ministry of Education, a month (during the summer of 1981) was spent in Greece by the investigator researching the adult education enterprise. Exploratory in nature, the study was primarily designed to map out an overview of adult education efforts in the country. Essentially, the purpose of the inquiry was to undertake a systematic overview of the meaning of adult education, its historical evolution, as well as the function and operational nature of the adult education enterprise in the country, including formal and nonformal, public and private endeavors.

METHODOLOGY

A two-fold approach to data collection was undertaken: (a) Intensive reading of the Greek-language literature and publications, available only in Greece, (b) Visits to, and interviews with, adult educators from the national, regional, and local levels. Administrators, practitioners, as well as consumers and villagers were included. A sampling of both urban and rural areas of the country was selected in order to ensure as comprehensive a coverage as possible within the time period. A good deal of time was spent in Athens coordinating and synthesizing these plans, as well as conducting in-depth interviews with the Director of Adult Education and staff, National Ministry of Education.

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Greece is divided into 51 districts, comparable to states. A sampling of seven of the districts (including one island) was selected for data collection purposes. Care was taken to include Southern, Middle, and Northern parts of Greece and to include a range of populations. It should be noted that both urban and rural areas, and villages, are included within each district. In all instances the capital was visited and information was gleaned about the entire district. Where possible, visits were made to rural areas and more remote villages. Additionally, traveling throughout Greece by bus afforded an opportunity to obtain incidental information about the Greek people themselves, their customs, traditions, living habits, attitudes and, of course, their understanding of, and participation in, learning opportunities and activities.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Results regarding the adult education enterprise will be reported in three areas: (a) Brief historical overview, (b) Philosophical and theoretical foundations, (c) Operational components.

Brief Historical Overview

Activities related to the education of adults officially surfaced only after the Greek War of Independence from Turkish occupation in 1821. During the occupation (from the 1400's to 1821) any organized educational pursuits, including schools, were forbidden, punishable by torture and death. Even during that period, however, adults met secretly in caves and churches to keep up their knowledge and their minds active, for their own growth and also to assist their children.

After the war, however, the earliest attempts to officially organize adult education activities were those of cultural associations. The Society of Friends of Education was founded in Athens in 1836, but it was between 1860 and 1870 that a proliferation of associations were established, such as the Parnassus Literary Society, the Women's Educational Association, and others. This trend continued and by the turn of the century organizations such as the Christian Brotherhood of Youth (similar to the Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A.) were established in 1923 (Vasilakis, 1962, 1981).

The private sector apparently tended to dominate the scene until 1929 when the Greek government enacted legislation introducing night schools for the illiterate and courses in agriculture and the like. By 1945 a Directorate of Adult Education was established in the Ministry of Education and by 1949 comparable sections were established in other ministries. The Ministry of Education, however, had and continues to have responsibility for coordinating and organizing services and activities throughout the entire country as will be discussed further in the paper (Kehayopoulos, 1979a, 1981).

During 1976-1977 a major reorganization of the adult educational system was undertaken by the government. Both philosophical and theoretical foundations, as well as operational organization was set forth. By this reorganization, and the accompanying legislation, adult education was recognized as an enterprise permeating all of society. A pivotal role of the government was seen as coordinating and offering support services, including professional growth, to both public and private sectors in order to ensure cooperation and collaboration among them.

Philosophical and Theoretical Foundations

As an implicit part of the 1976-1977 reorganization, a philosophical and theoretical basis was developed as a sound foundation and guideline for operational components. Additionally, lifelong education was adopted as a "master concept" to guide the development of efforts. In this context, adult education is seen as only one component, but an important one, of lifelong education.

Known as the "General Principles of the Lifelong Education System," the guidelines are predicated in classical Greek ideals of lifelong learning and adult education, as well as upon the UNESCO promulgated "Recommendations for the Development of Adult Education," passed by the UNESCO General Assembly in Nairobi at the 19th annual meeting, November, 1976. In fact, according to Kehayopoulos (1981), National Director of Adult Education, "Greece was the first country to fully adopt the UNESCO recommendations and make them part of national policy."

In abbreviated form, the 12 principles guiding the lifelong education system of Greece are as follows:

1. An organized, integrated, comprehensive, dynamic system to assist humankind in seeking truth and becoming more self-managing both for personal growth, as well as for the positive contribution one might make to society.
2. Development of all spheres of human functioning (physical, intellectual, emotional, spiritual), including one's interface with society.
3. Acquisition and renewal of knowledge according to one's own needs, wishes, potentialities, etc. for both professional and personal growth.
4. Provision of educational assistance, regardless of the obstacles of time, place, finances, or physical/psychological condition.
5. Facilitation of movement withing the system, accompanied by assistance and feedback of one's progress and growth.
6. Linkage of education with work and life.
7. Use of the entire human environment for educational use.
8. Uniform training of all learning facilitators in lifelong education principles, as well as provision for continuous growth of educators themselves.
9. Fostering of the idea and philosophy of lifelong education in educational personnel, learners, as well as the public-at-large.
10. Establishment of the following functional structure for the system: General Education, Specialized Education (vocational to university), and Adult Education.
11. General Education (first 17-18 years of life) compulsory.
12. At least 2-3 years devoted to equipping an individual with knowledge and skills to gain a livelihood and to play an active part in society.

Operational Components

Based on the historical evolution and guided by the above principles, the adult education enterprise in Greece is operationally manifest at three different levels: (a) National ministerial level, (b) District level, (c) Local level. An overview of the entire organizational plan of adult education and an abbreviated discussion of findings at each level follows. Although independent and autonomous in terms of tending to their own needs, the district and local levels still maintain official linkages with the national ministerial level.

As with most developing countries, adult education efforts are coordinated out of the ministerial auspices and, in that regard, are centralized. Intensive in-depth interviews with the National Director of Adult Education within the National Ministry of Education (Petros Kehayopoulos) revealed, however, that ministerial leadership concentrates on policy-making, guidance, and the development of periodic symposia for the educational development of adult educators throughout the country. Responsibility and authority for decision-making and the structuring of organized activities is decentralized and left up to district and local level personnel. This assertion was corroborated by a number of district administrators who gave unsolicited input that they were given much authority regarding decision-making and operationalization of adult education. As Mr. Adelphopoulos (1981) of Patras put it, "one of the things /that is/ most valuable to me is the combination of authority and autonomy, yet the provision of guidance we are afforded by the National Director."

As depicted in Figure 1, the National Ministry acts in a coordinating capacity for the integrated operationalization of adult education throughout the country. The National Director of Adult Education within the National Ministry works closely with a Central Committee of Adult Education, comprised of representatives from each of the other National Ministries (e.g. Industry, Cultural Affairs, etc.), the Church, as well as local authorities and representatives for agencies in the private sector. In addition, a representative from the Academy of Athens, an honorary society of distinguished scholars, is included. Located in Athens, the committee essentially acts as a policy-making body to help guide and unify societal efforts throughout the country.

The National Ministry of Education, via the guidance of Petros Kehayopoulos, Director of Adult Education, assumes responsibility for coordinating all adult education at the national level and, through his office, down through regional and local levels also. In fact, one of his activities is to help educate the other National Ministries as to the role they play in the adult education enterprise, as well as to educate the public in these matters. All national ministries seem to have a role in adult education. For example, the Ministry of Industry and Energy, although primarily occupationally oriented, provides training for its employees, as well as education for potential employees and the unemployed. Most of the other ministries, such as Justice, Interior, etc. likewise provide pre and in-service training for their employees. Libraries and museums and their role in the adult education enterprise are handled by the Ministry of Cultural Affairs and health education is handled through the Ministry of Social Services. These and others are beginning to recognize and acknowledge their roles in the adult education enterprise, as well as the pivotal role of adult education in society-at-large. Of course, this, in all probability, has been catalyzed by their participation on the Central Committee of Adult Education (Kehayopoulos & Piascou, 1980).

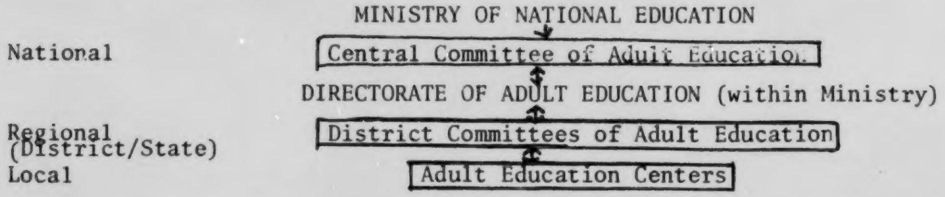
MINISTRY OF NATIONAL EDUCATION
National
Central Committee of Adult Education
DIRECTORATE OF ADULT EDUCATION (within Ministry)
Regional (District/State)
District Committees of Adult Education
Local
Adult Education Centers

Figure 1. Encapsulated Overview of Organizational Plan for Adult Education in Greece

Each of the 51 districts into which Greece is divided hosts its own District or State Committee of Adult Education, known as the Nomos Committee, after the Greek word for district. Similar in composition to the Central Committee, its delegate members include the local bishop and nomarch, who act as co-chairs, local directors of agriculture, social services, etc., representatives from private organizations concerned with adult education, and a representative from the citizenry of the municipality. These regional committees are responsible for the establishment of Adult Education Centers in the District, administration of their budgets, and the recruitment and selection of directors for the center, as well as the supervision of night primary schools.

Adult Education Centers are self-governing units. Although the Director is selected by the Regional Committee, he/she has responsibility and authority for selecting center personnel. In addition, a "management committee," composed of 5-7 local citizens collaborates with the staff to plan and implement center activities. Each district hosts anywhere from 3-15 centers, depending upon the size and population of the district. Each center may serve up to ten surrounding towns and villages. Not all learning opportunities, however, are offered at central premises; quite often the staff of the center organizes and attends to learning groups in mountainous villages, where both terrain and transportation barriers may otherwise hinder villagers from partaking in learning opportunities.

The learning opportunities themselves, moreover, reflect the needs, interests, and problems of the citizens and are identified by them. Populations served include those from all walks of life--from professionals to peasants, from city-dwellers to village people. The type of learning experiences which evolve run the gamut from philosophical and theoretical areas, to occupational concerns, to self-enrichment and leisure activities, to citizen and civic learning.

Perhaps the final noteworthy characteristic of the centers is that they represent a process unit more than a physical facility. Although some are accommodated in physical premises which are identified as "The Center," more often learning groups are held in a variety of premises: churches, libraries, voluntary associations, areas lent by local councils, clubs, societies, and people's homes. There appears to be a tremendous amount of cooperation among organizations, institutions, and agencies in society in accommodating and making learning opportunities available for its citizens. Moreover, anyone can attend sessions and all are free of charge, sponsored by the government.

Needs assessment and marketing are carried out both at regional and local levels. At the district (regional) level, concern is focused in the unique problems, needs, etc, of the entire region, while the local efforts concentrate more on community and individual concerns. Although outside the scope of this abbreviated paper to review the variety of ways in which needs and interests are determined, suffice it to say that the entire environment becomes involved: mass media (radio, TV, newspaper), churches, schools, and other organizations. Finally, the cafeneio (or coffee-shop), a phenomenon particularly characteristic of Greek society and culture, provides a unique context for determining needs that learning activities could and should address. The cafeneio, an integral part of Greek culture, is a meeting place in the community where most people go at least once a week (sometimes every day) to refresh themselves and to talk about politics, problems, and concerns. Once restricted to only men, women may now likewise be found frequenting the cafeneio. District Directors, such as Mr. Kayiannas of Tripoli, find that data provided in a cafeneio context seem to represent quite valid and accurate information. As he put it, "I or a staff member, or committee member will spend at least once a week in the local cafeneio around the district, not for a formally structured needs assessment, but just talking and socializing and most of all listening. That's where the real problems and concerns of people tend to surface." (Kayiannas, 1981). For Kayiannas and others, needs derived through such means tend to be more accurate and learning activities more far-reaching.

Operationalization, coordination, and unification of the adult education enterprise in Greece continuous to grow. This exploratory attempt has unearthed a number of areas worthy of future inquiry.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Greece stands at key crossroads. Geographically, it is a pivotal point between Europe, Asia, and Africa, and likewise bridges Eastern European with Western European countries. Not as developed as its Western neighbors, but more highly developed than most of its middle Eastern neighbors, it represents a transitionary stage from a developing to developed country. As such, it offers an ideal example for other countries, particularly of similar size and population to study.

Its adult education enterprise is well-organized, well thought out, and well grounded. In fact, a sound philosophical, theoretical, and conceptual foundation undergirds the operational components. Perhaps one of the most unique features of adult education in Greece is its blend of centralization and decentralization: centralized policy and guidance, decentralized decision-making authority, and autonomy in matters pertaining to adult education activities. The actualization of this achievement makes it of interest to any country. Moreover, implications for future research, both within Greece and between Greece and other countries abound.

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THE IDENTIFICATION OF VOLUNTEER LITERACY TUTORS' TRAINING NEEDS

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Abstract

The purposes of this study were to identify and rank the major competencies and attributes needed by beginning volunteer literacy tutors of English speaking adults and to develop a tutor self-assessment inventory based on these competencies and attributes. The method involved the identification of competencies and attributes found in the literature, the review of these competencies and attributes by a reviewer panel of 11 adult educators, and the rating of the competencies and attributes by a panel of 48 volunteer literacy tutors who had a minimum of one year of tutoring experience.

This study, the Identification of Volunteer Literacy Tutors' Training Needs, was undertaken to assist trainers of volunteer literacy tutors of English speaking adults in designing training programs. The data was gathered through questionnaires developed with the assistance of a panel of experienced adult educators and experienced volunteer tutors.

METHODOLOGY

The typical methods for competency development in education were followed. (Mocker, 1974; Smith, 1976). The original list of competencies was drawn from the literature in the fields of adult basic education, literacy education, and reading. A panel of 11 adult educators and literacy educators reviewed the identified competencies and suggested additional competencies and attributes. The comments and suggestions of the panel were compiled and developed into the competency and attribute list sent to the tutors for rating.

This list in its inventory form had 52 items divided into six subsections. The 48 tutors rated each item. The means of each item were computed and ranked within each of the subsections. The ranked list was considered the Tutor Competency and Attribute List (TCAL).

The Tutor Self-Assessment Inventory (TSAI) was developed using items from the TCAL. The selected items met the following criteria:

(1) The competency or attribute is one which can be taught or improved through additional training or information provided to the tutor; (2) the competency or attribute needs to be emphasized due to its importance to the tutoring situation; and/or (3) the competency or attribute received a rating of at least 3.40 during the rating round. Eleven competencies and attributes were eliminated because the investigator felt these would be difficult to teach during an in-service program. The TSAI was reviewed and commented on by the original panel of 11 adult educators.

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RESULTS

Based on the results from the questionnaire, the tutors felt that the following competencies and attributes were the most important.

1. In the area of Psychology of the Adult Learner, the beginning tutor should be knowledgeable about the following: (1) The need to establish an atmosphere in which the student feels accepted, (2) the need for the learning process to be a cooperative and active one, and (3) a possible (student) self-image as an inadequate learner.

2. In the area of Interpersonal Relationship, the beginning tutor should be knowledgeable about the following: (1) the importance of avoiding sarcasm or derogatory remarks, (2) the importance of tact and courtesy, and (3) the need for developing the student's sense of confidence.

3. In the area of Personal and Administrative Responsibilities, the beginning tutor should: (1) give clear instructions and explanations, (2) have awareness of the importance of consistence and on time attendance at the tutoring sessions, and (3) having a genuine commitment to adult learning, including continuing self-education by tutor.

4. In the area of Reading Skills and Instructional Methods, the beginning tutor should be able to teach: (1) comprehension of written materials, (2) word analysis skills, and (3) vocabulary development.

5. In the area of Assessment, the beginning tutor should be able to: (1) refer the student to the appropriate professional worker if professional diagnosis of learning problems must be done, and (2) determine the student's learning style and rate.

6. In the area of Implementation of Instruction, the beginning tutor should be able to: (1) select appropriate methods to teach the planned program, and (2) select and prepare instructional materials to teach the planned program.

IMPLICATIONS

Tutors function in a variety of instructional settings, ranging from ones in which they are totally responsible for the instructional planning to ones in which they carry out the directives of an ABE teacher. The results from the study have implications for the training of volunteer tutors regardless of the instructional setting. The self-assessment inventory has been designed to assess the self-perceived needs of tutors and may be used in these various settings.

The results from the study showed that the tutor's first concern was the development of a positive interpersonal relationship with the student. Emphasis needs to be placed on developing interpersonal skills and awareness on the tutor's part. Such skill and awareness must include information on the characteristics of the students, methods for developing a positive tutoring relationship, and the identification of physical environment factors that affect the tutoring process. The initial training for these areas should begin in the pre-service training for the tutor.

Additional areas that the tutors feel need to be addressed are the identification of learning needs, styles, and rates of students. The pre-service training also needs to present an opportunity to learn a variety of teaching techniques, assessment techniques, and ideas for developing supplemental materials. A tutor needs to have sound understanding and ability in the aforementioned areas in order to be competent.

The tutors bring different skills and backgrounds to the tutoring situation. Some are experienced teachers; others are not. The pre-service training should be flexible enough to recognize these differences and provide the appropriate information to meet the tutors' individual needs.

Since many of the competencies and attributes identified in this study need to be developed over a period of time, opportunities for in-service education should be provided for the tutor. Again, these programs should reflect the needs of the tutors. Instruction should be individualized as needed so as to maintain interest and minimize wasted time.

To assist ABE programs and volunteer literacy organizations with identifying pre-service and in-service training needs, the TSAI was developed. This inventory could be used prior to start of the pre-service training so that the training could be tailored to the tutor's needs. The TSAI would also be appropriately used by the tutor to determine his/her readiness for tutoring a student and in determining areas in which the novice tutor needs additional instruction. Another use for the TSAI is by organizations when they are planning their in-service programs for tutors. Using the inventory would permit the adjustment of training to the varied backgrounds and experience of the tutors. This would assist in the effective and efficient use of the tutor's and program director's time.

In summary, this study identified major competencies and attributes needed by volunteer literacy tutors of English-speaking adults. The Tutor Self-Assessment Inventory was developed so that tutors could identify their own tutoring strengths and weaknesses and so that tutor trainers would have an aid for developing appropriate pre-service and in-service training programs.

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PROGRAMMATIC VS. PARTICIPATIVE APPROACHES WITH SMALL FARM OPERATORS

Peter Burke[1]

Abstract

The condition of small farms is a worldwide concern. The Extension Service Farm Opportunities Program in the United States and the emerging focus among international development agengies attest to that. Small farm agriculture in the Third World has not met global expectations, and small farms in this country are declining.

Along with serious structural and institutional impediments to small farm development, there are alternatives being raised to traditional agricultural extension methods with small farmers, centering on participation. That practice/concept has emerged substantially in the last ten years as a tenet in rural development theory. The dimensions of such participation have been thoroughly defined (Cohen and Uphoff, 1977), and rural development literature is replete with case studies of participation (e.g., Gow and Van Sant, 1981). With all the theoretical work and projects implemented involving participation, no comparative research has examined differences between approaches with small farmers. This paper details a framework developed to examine such a comparison.

Traditional extension work does involve participation. Yet, close examination of extension-related literature and practice shows degrees of differences between traditional extension methods and a more fully participative method. For example, Boone, Dolan and Shearon (1971) describe program planning activities which emphasize interfacing with target group leaders, but that model has control of learning very much with the teacher and the organization, limiting full participation.

The issue of the degree of control in the learning process is central in international extension literature. Though the aim of "self-help" is recognized, there is no description of *how* that participative aim is to be achieved. Control of the learning process is solely with the teacher, who supplies answers, teaches people to recognize their problems, and *extends* information, very much a teaching *to* people. Such literature tends to be mechanistic with *techniques* of teaching described (not processes), plus neat models order which does not necessarily exist, the epitome being the "training-and-visit" system (Benor and Harrison, 1977). Older adoption/diffusion literature shares that mechanistic quality, with normal curves of adopters, a "two-step" diffussion process and hierarchy of adoption. These neat, logical models appear in much extension literature.

Extension service operational constraints limit full client participation, due to pressure to show *numbers* of people served, which curtails time available to develop participation. Also, their activities being administratively categorized, extension services focus solely on one content area - like agriculture - limiting bases for participation.

The implications for traditional extension work are that (i) it works primarily with progressive farmers due to administrative constraints and its educational paradigm, (ii) that paradigm objectifies clients and (iii) agricultural information is "extended to target" farmers.

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However, adult education literature provides philosophical underpinning and practical methods for participation. Freire (1970) espouses a "problem-posing" learning stragegy, in which precise listening to learner needs yields "problems" then represented to learners for refinement and subsequent learning experiences.

In addition to Freire's basic notions, Coombs (1974), Simkins (1977), and LaBelle (1976) provide a philosophic and administrative rationale for nonformal education. Kindervatter (1979) adds concrete examples of participatory nonformal education in rural development, while Vella (1980) and Crone and Hunter (1980) provide participative nonformal education techniques.

More recent technology transfer literature acknowledges the socio-culture component of that process (Gow and Vansant, 1981) see development beneficiaries defining technology problems more precisely, through dialogue, for the design of more appropriate solutions.

The primary implication of the above literature is that an alternate paradigm for extension education does exist. The next task is to contrast the two approaches.

PROGRAMMATIC VS. PARTICIPATIVE APPROACHES

These approaches share much, yet they differ significantly around the following issues:

1. Philosophic and conceptual assumptions: In the traditional extension programmatic approach, philosophy and practice mean that learners provide broad needs, and the extension worker designs the whole learning process. That programmatic approach is agriculture-centered, tending to aim at the "progressive" farmer. It is also socio-politically value-free, working within accepted community structures for improvement, even employing community development strategies. Its theme is harmony and cooperation through self-help, with change agents as active promoters with trained local leaders.

   The participative approach differs in its attitude towards learners, focus, its relationship with community structures, and overall philosophy. The participative approach aims more at (a) social and economic equity and (b) a mutuality in worker-farmer responsibilities in the learning process. Learners, together with a facilitating extension worker, define their own needs, learning experiences, sequence of learning, and evaluation. This derives philosophically from Freire, implying a liberation from oppression via a conscientization process in which the learner becomes a "subject" of his/her own learning.

   Here the learners are less progressive farmers who are not as receptive to the programmatic approach. Though not excluding progressive farmers, this approach better fits the needs of more conservative, traditional small farmers who have a complex network of needs. Those needs predicate an agriculture-related element to this approach.

   The assumption of equity as important means that socio-economic conflict is possible, since action can be taken towards that issue. Community or group organization is then vital to enhancing group actions and reinforcing changes.

2. Overall Methodology: The programmatic approach utilizes the standard Extension Service methodology. First, needs of target farmers are identified via interaction with key influentials, advisory groups, and on-going program experience. Second, those needs are prioritized within the extension organization, via the advice of committees and organizational philosophy, capabilities, and priorities. Third, a program is designed to meet priority needs via a Plan of Work with measurable, agriculture-centered objectives. Program implementation involves a whole range of standard educational experiences, mainly agriculture-centered experiences oriented to

talking to people. The program is evaluated, via Plan of Work objectives and external expectations, with unforeseen outcomes kept in mind. The primary flow of reporting is upwards, with some lateral flow to local committees.

The primary difference in the participative approach is in the time taken for full involvement with program participants. The first stage is to listen systematically to concerns of target people, the focal question being "who needs what as defined by whom?" (Vella, 1980). This is done via optimal direct contact with learners, with the total social environment in mind. Needs are then "represented" to learners, posing concerns heard through a culturally compatible method allowing learners to redefine their concerns.

Learners and workers then mutually plan activities to meet priority needs, with evaluation of combined knowledge and resources, agreement on mutual responsibilities, and probable agreement on exploring new practices. The worker is responsible for structuring those activities congruently with content and learning method needs expressed by participants. Though the participative approach is organized in stages, it involves on-going mutual evaluation, a continuous refinement of needs - via problem-posing activities - and learning methods, via formative evaluation.

The learning activities proceed according to original plans, mutually modified in formative evaluation. Those learning activities (a) combine local concerns and resources with appropriate external resources, (b) use problem-posing designs, (c) develop learning materials locally as much as possible, (d) are one-to-one, in small groups, and in large groups, and (e) aim at group-building and development.

Summative evaluation continues on-going, systematic listening to learner needs. The cumulative information of formative evaluations is combined into a whole with (i) a comparison with original objectives and (ii) the unanticipated outcomes of learning activities. The emphasis is on the participants' sense of accomplishments and problems. The themes of this approach are full dialogue with participants, and a praxis of reflection and "political" action on community socio-economic structures.

3. Focus: The programmatic approach focuses squarely on agriculture and directly related content areas. Worker activity tends toward progressive farmers who tend to seek out services.

   The participative approach focuses on agriculture and other concerns small farmers have. The individual, sub-group, and community are treated as a whole, and existing social networks are used for forming groups to diffuse learning. The socio-economic structure is closely examined to gauge the level of equity and to facilitate a critical awareness about it.

4. Objectives: The objectives of the programmatic approach relate directly to agricultural development and adoption of innovations. Objectives of the participative approach go beyond economic indicators and adoption rates to equitable development, and innovation is technical and social. Growth of critical consciousness is an objective as well.

5. Nature of worker-farmer interaction: As Freire (1973) expresses it, the programmatic approach is "Extension" - technical knowledge and practices thrust by the "expert" into the farmer's environment. Trust is built up to "extend" agricultural information. Dependency is likelier here. Freire calls the participative approach "Communication" - an on-going process of listening to farmer concerns, prioritizing needs, and mutually designing and implementing ways to meet needs. The worker and farmer meet on a level of mutual respect and complementary skills and knowledge, with interdependence likelier.

6. Learning methods: The methods used most in the programmatic approach are one-to-one on-farm visits, formal meetings/demonstrations, and public information via centrally produced materials. Discussion and small group tasks occur the the worker in control.

The participative approach uses all of the above techniques, with optimal learner participation and control that starts with one-to-one worker-farm interaction, moves to informal small groups, and then to nonformal large groups. The last two only occur when farmers are ready for them, and use dialogical, problem-posing activities. Learning materials are developed locally and/or externally produced materials are adapted.

7. Content: The programmatic approach focuses on externally determined, apolitical, agricultural information. The participative approach utilizes that and all concerns of small farmers, their families, and target groups.

8. Characteristics of extension workers: In the programmatic approach the worker is the "teacher", with a firm grasp of agricultural information and ability to describe and demonstrate it. In the participative approach the worker is "facilitator" - quite knowledgeable about farming, empathetic with farm families with good listening skills, and highly skilled in participative learning methods.

9. Nature of "Receptive" farmers: The programmatic approach succeeds best with progressive farmers, as they are ready to adopt new practices. The participative approach work best with those who are generally "late adopters" or "laggards". They need more time to develop trust with extension workers, and acclimate themselves to possible changes.

10. Nature of Technology: In the programmatic approach this is geared to large farmers and their needs technology that is primary externally produced. The participative approach may involve transfer and adaptation of technology, but only if it is appropriate to farmers' needs and resources.

11. Timing: Focusing solely on agricultural change, the programmatic approach reaches a sustained peak quicker than the participative approach. The latter reaches a higher sustained peak over time and brings agriculture-related changes beyond the range of the programmatic approach.

The present research objectives for this programmatic participative comparison center on determining small farmer characteristics, testing the approaches, and describing their processual differences. Given those objectives, qualitative research methods, especially adapted ethnographic methods, seem most appropriate. Ethnography shows how and what people think and can lead us into "those separate realities which others have learned and which they use to make sense out of their worlds." (Spradley, 1980, p.v.). That means a continually reflective strategy, in which general themes from field research change and become more specific during on-going questioning. Within that, participant observation is an alternative which allows long-term participation and observation. Also promising is the participant-as-observer technique, (Kerogero, 1981), with observation focusing on critical behaviors. That could focus on the worker/farmer behaviors contributing to the effectiveness of each approach.

The conceptual framework here is promising both for its results and for its methodology. To examine the interaction of extension worker and small farmer requires a realistic framework and methodological inventiveness, to undertake the serious business of how to aid small farmers most effectively.

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RETIRED FACULTY,
A USEFUL RESOURCE

Harriet W. Cabell[1]

Abstract

This study was designed to examine the possibilities for involving retired faculty of the University in work with adult students. Supported by a two-year grant from the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE), the project promoted the utilization of senior resources in activities such as student advisement, learning contract supervision, and prior learning evaluation.

When asked how many faculty had retired from his university during the past five years, the Vice-President of Academic Affairs of a major university sheepishly admitted the information was not available. This invisibility is typical despite the fact that one person out of nine is sixty-five years of age or older (Butler, 1981, p.20). Retirement may mean a diminution of income as well as a psychological and social loss. Some retirees themselves are victims of the stereotype images of aging, while others "seek to develop continuity with the past" (Neugarten et al, 1968, p. 178). Modern medical science allows an ever increasing proportion of those reaching sixty-five to remain vigorous and healthy. There are a number of different patterns of adjustment to retirement, but Duvall reports that maintaining an interest in others outside the family produces the brightest satisfaction (1971, p. 448).

While older faculty are coping with the implications of separation from their central life tasks, academic leaders are coping with the special strategies needed in helping the estimated fifteen million adults over age twenty-five enrolled in American universities (Roueche, 1980, p. 14). Questions to be answered are, "How can we develop a program utilizing new faculty staffing patterns for new clientele who do not fit traditional programs?" "Where will needed resources be found in these days of shrinking dollars?" "How can we be increasingly effective in the decade ahead?" Level or decreased funding, back to basic movements, proliferation of paperwork, and changing demography are all pressures upon the academy. Unfortunately at the very time faculty are needed in expanded roles, a most likely resource is being "put on the shelf" or "out to pasture". Lord Jackson reminds us, "The nature of an environment is largely determined by the senior men in it" (Houle, 1971, p. 115).

Although universities may be concerned over the loss of the meaningful service of retired faculty and the need to help adult learners, few institutions have either the skills or administrative organization necessary to bring adult learners and retired faculty together. In recognition of the growing significance of these problems, the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE) awarded The University of Alabama New College a two-year grant in 1979 for the Senior Resource Program. The University was one of the few institutions in the country with an organization of retired faculty who were already working with adult learners in a distance learning, external degree program. Extensive work was conducted with retired faculty to assist them in preparing to work with nontraditional students, and an attempt was made to gain more insight into the general problems of retirement. Thirty-two retired faculty were active in the Senior Resource project, assisting over one hundred students in independent learning activities.

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At The University of Alabama, increased awareness of adult learners prompted the design of the New College External Degree Program. Adults must be on campus only once for a brief "Introduction to Adult Learning Seminar". Graduation requirements closely parallel those leading to a B.A. or B.S. degree. Credits may be earned in a variety of ways including out-of-class learning contracts, evaluation for prior demonstrated learning, and correspondence and on-campus seminars and courses. The External Degree Program is presently serving over five hundred students from all over the United States and ten foreign countries.

"What do you need to know in order to accomplish what you would like with the rest of your life?" is the question asked of the adult learners. Answering this question necessitates a concept of education that permits the individualization of the learning process, but requires a labor intensive type of advising that is difficult to fund on a long term basis using only current faculty with heavy committee, teaching, and publishing pressures.

Two years of experience convinces me that the idea of improving adult learning by using retired faculty merits vigorous pursuit, but there are complexities (and special sets of concerns) that require careful thought and study.

SENIOR RESOURCES AND RETIRED FACULTY

The Senior Resource Program was conceived as a productive way to coordinate the needs of the adult learner with the needs of retired faculty. Since the pilot program began, men and women have assisted adult learners in the New College/External Degree Program on a regular basis and in a variety of ways including developing student and faculty-initiated out-of-class learning contracts, evaluating prior demonstrated learning portfolios, developing challenge exams, teaching favorite courses, advising students on career and professional goals, and conducting study tours and off-campus internships. Because of the time and space-free nature of the External Degree Program, retirees have been able to work with students individually on a part-time basis while continuing their other outside activities.

A number of human interest stories illustrate the mutuality of the project. One eighty-two year old member developed in her home a tutorial program in English usage. One of her adult students had encountered a series of tragedies and had become isolated from close relationships. Through the individual sessions, the forty-eight year old student mastered freshman English and developed her first close friendship. The faculty member said, "Just imagine. I didn't want to retire at sixty-five. This has given me a second chance to be needed at over eighty!"

A homemaker, deserted after twenty-five years of marriage, returned to the External Degree Program unsure of herself as well as of her educational career goals. A senior resource person suggested the student accompany her on a cross-cultural experience to Guatemala. The student returned with newfound energy and reported, "I never dreamed I could do anything, much less learn. I saw that all ages could get along together. I lived with younger people for a week and was accepted. They even felt that I knew something. Can you believe it? I wrote a paper comparing the conditions of this country and Guatemala. For the first time in a long time I feel competent. I feel hope!"

RETIRED FACULTY REQUIRE INFORMATION

Some faculty review retirement as a permanent separation, a rite of passage from productivity to non-productivity. The idea of a senior resource project is not for every retiree. At best, such a program is only one type of opportunity in the milieu into which an individual retires and should be a part of pre-retirement planning and an active, on-going process of the educational institution.

The problems of educating adults are complex and many faculty do not really believe as Comenius said, "...Every age is destined for learning (Houle, 1971, p. 34). However, it is necessary to familiarize those working with adults in their special characteristics and needs.

After years of successful teaching and professional life, many retired do not feel a need or desire for further training even though their teaching experience has been solely with younger students. It is equally true that many began their teaching in an era of less specialization and have had alternate work and service experiences that enhance the teaching and learning process. Many taught veterans "after the war" and may be more cognizant of utilizing the experiences of the student than their younger colleagues. The effort to use these forty or fifty years of a career bring an added scope and dimension well worth the time. At the present time over eighty adults are working in a mentor/student relationship with a senior resource person. The faculty mentor who guides the student may be the main contact the student has with The University. The relationship which emerges is far more significant than the traditional faculty on-campus relationship. Through the project the adult students have received individualized instruction and advising while the retirees have been given the opportunity to continue their service.

A thirty-five year old sales manager entered the External Degree Program "after an early marriage and disastrous start in college." The careful evaluation of a portfolio for prior learning credit by a retired business faculty resulted in the equivalent of an additional year of college credit, and a faculty member enriched by the following letter:

"I want to thank you from the bottom of my heart for your caring and diligent attitude in the evaluation of my portfolio. You are truly a credit to yourself, the University, and your profession. I hope someday that I can serve mankind in such a useful way as you."

No easy or automatic method for continuing education of retired professionals was discovered. Lively and free discussions on adult development and the effects on education were both more interesting and time consuming than originally envisioned. Maddox reminds us, "Retirement is a social as well as economic event" (Neugarten, 1968, p. 359). The social interaction with peers was of major importance to the group. In the beginning it came as somewhat of a surprise that retired faculty did not know each other even though many had taught from thirty to forty years at the same institution. "I've taught in Commerce for over thirty years," was greeted with, "Well, I taught in Engineering. I think I've heard of your name."

Most retired faculty do not have tight schedules and have lost their desire to meet deadlines. The groups tended to enjoy being together and "to catch up on old times" before discussing the issues at hand. All of these factors made it necessary to maintain a flexible schedule. Any group developing a similar program would do well to plan to meet social needs first and then to move into more serious discussions.

Materials like Sheehy's book, Passages, were used to stimulate discussion on adult development. One retired faculty member, incensed at the picture presented of executives, brought in a series of references and a research paper to refute Sheehy's argument. It was obvious that scholarship was still at work! A wide variety of materials including books, articles, films, speakers, and case studies was utilized but it was inteeresting to note how often conversations drifted into discussions on the pros and cons of nursing home care. One conclusion seemed clear, to speak or act as if the retired were a single entity is no more useful than to speak of the adult learners as if they were the same.

FEAR OF FAILURE

If activities for retired faculty are to provide a new role, they must afford an acceptable concept of self. In our society, both the older faculty member and the older student are presumably subject to limitations which reduce the ability to perform as well as the individuals of the "right" culturally approved age. This was perhaps a contributing factor in the failure of the project's initial self-selection process. Although almost twice as many retired faculty attended an information meeting as had attended previous social gatherings, few volunteered. Remarks were made stating, "I'm interested but I doubt if you need me". Personal contacts were made to each person who indicated an interest. Originally, selection was designed to assure a wide range of expertise to fulfill the areas of interest and curriculum requirements of the adult students in the program, but it was decided to attempt to promote the skills of each retiree who affiliated with the Senior Resource Program.

Group discussions, though lively, were rarely controversial. A number made individual appointments to discuss the concept of awarding credit for prior learning, contract learning and other parts of the program. It soon became obvious the participants were unwilling to risk rejection in the group settings.

Apparently a number of the group retired with feelings of having been used and forgotten. Of the original seventeen selected, three made individual appointments to discuss their perceived harsh treatment by the University. Others said they had no hard feelings, but recounted stories of friends "who wouldn't put a foot on the campus." Complaints ranged from offices being taken away, confused retirement benefits, no role in the college or university, forgotten for committee work, left out of faculty directories, and uninvited to social events, except "when money is needed."

RETIRED FACULTY COMMITMENTS

Retired faculty often prefer to work on a short-term basis without the responsibilities and ties of long-term commitments. A member might indicate, "I will work with this student, but she will have to have her project finished by the time my daughter's baby comes" etc. As the resource persons become familiar with each other and the program, they become more creative in suggesting areas of expertise. Special suggested projects included readings and day trips of historical interest in Alabama, a favorite lecture series, a course on investing with weekly meetings at the stockmarket, educational travel to Spain and Portugal, evaluation of prior demonstrated learning, orientation of new faculty, college representation on the City Council, home-based tutorial lectures on retirement, entertainment of guests of the campus, staff for dissemination conferences, advisers to students including on-site visits to work situations in and out of the state, and an award for the outstanding contribution by a retired faculty member. It has been difficult to restrict retired faculty to the specific needs of the program. It is obvious that a wealth of talent is available, but tapping the variety of resources is a more difficult and time-consuming process. Educational tasks need to be short, of a wide variety, and initiated by the faculty themselves.

OMBUDSMAN

The project director served as a contact for the retirees. Members liked to drop by the office for extended visits, to use the phone, have a cup of coffee, discuss University policies, and "just to say hello." The project director attempted to bridge the gap and act as an advisory for the retired. This same role had been assumed for adult students. Officers of the retired group are determined to unite and not only continue the Senior Resource project but to initiate new ideas. However, it is difficult to get retired faculty to assume responsibility for their own advocacy, and without strong institution commitment, the future may be in jeopardy.

A WORKABLE MODEL

The Senior Resource Program is a workable model for a variety of educational settings. During the last two years, interest was stimulated in the program by a slide presentation viewed by an estimated one thousand persons in eight states at fifteen different conferences. At the present time, the oldest member is eighty-two, the youngest is sixty.

Special encouragement was given to the retired faculty of neighboring Birmingham-Southern College, a small private liberal arts institution in Birmingham, Alabama. With the assistance of the President, the faculty at Southern formed a group that meets periodically for social functions and to assist the college with special projects. Five members from Southern became a permanent part of the Senior Resource Program and discussions on forming a statewide group are in the infant stage of development. The model should help to initiate interest for future innovation at other institutions.

CONCLUSIONS

The Senior Resource faculty have particularly benefited from an open forum for discussion with peers. Their contributions to adult learners in the New College External Degree Program have been as varied as the retirees themselves. Their basic material needs have been met by the educational retirement system and they are most interested in a more productive quality of life. The following purposes have been served:

To develop an adaptable model for utilizing retired faculty to work with adults in an external degree program.

To improve the quality of advising and learning opportunities for adults enrolled in an external delivery system.

To serve as a model for other institutions wanting to identify and remove barriers to intergenerational learning and teaching.

Finally, and perhaps most importantly, to share knowledge gained in the project with retired faculty participants.

As Robert Butler said, "We are accustomed to recounting the most pressing problems of the elderly, but we shouldn't forget that all people deserve full participation in life so they may offer what they can to others and receive what they need in return" (Synergist, Fall, 1981, p. 20).

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ADULTS' USE OF TELEVISION FOR LEARNING

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Abstract

Adults view television for many purposes, including education as well as entertainment. Few adults take formal telecourses but some use television to satisfy their informal learning interests. Four small sample studies of informal adult learners were conducted, using telephone interview techniques. Data on their demographic characteristics, learning activities, viewing behavior, and attitudes and interests with regard to informational and educational television were collected.

Studies in both the United States and Canada reveal that a large proportion of adult citizens engage in learning activities each year. Relatively little of this learning is for academic credit and a great deal of it is planned and carried out by the learners. These studies also indicate that television is not a vehicle for learning used by large numbers of adult learners. Some recent events, however, may enhance the appeal of television as an aid to both formal and informal learning.

Tough (1971) concluded following interviews with 66 Canadian adults that 98% of them engaged in some sustained, deliberate efforts to learn. Using a much larger sample, also of Canadian adults, Waniewicz (1976) found only 30% of them had engaged in systematic learning activities, but an additional 18% indicated an intention to learn something. Only about 1% of these learners preferred television as a way to learn, in sharp contrast to the 50% who preferred traditional courses.

Two studies in this country provide equally varied findings. Aslanian and Brickell (1980) estimated that 50% of the 1,500 Americans over 25 years of age that they interviewed learned one or more topics in the preceeding year. On the other hand, a very carefully designed study by Penland (1977) documented the learning of 1,501 American adults, producing a much higher estimate. He reported 80% probability that adults would engage in learning and that the likelihood of adults planning their own learning was 75%. Television, however, was found to be only "weakly" associated with adult learning, although Penland saw potential in cable television as a means for increasing learning opportunities for adults.

In addition to the many commercial television stations in this country, by last count 294 public television transmitters serve audiences in almost all of our states. (Wyoming and Montana, for example, have no public television stations.) Academic course, primarily offered by community colleges, are broadcast in many metropolitan areas. Sometimes several institutions will award credit for courses aired by a PBS station, as is the case with the Maryland Center for Public Broadcasting's "College of the Air". Viewers throughout the nation can learn from the new PTV-3 service offered by PBS and those who subscribe to cable systems in some areas can take Appalachian Community Service Network courses. Finally, the Maryland consortium which relies heavily on television instruction will soon expand to include 30 academic institutions in all parts of the country. While all of these examples involve formal courses, it is known that many viewers who are not enrolled watch them.

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In mid-1981, four small sample surveys of adult television viewers were made under a contract with the Corporation for Public Broadcasting. The primary purpose of the probes was to field test an interview schedule to be used in a later, more comprehensive survey. These four small studies, however, yielded some interesting data about television's role in adult learning, especially in the more informal ways adults meet their learning needs.

Contributors to public television stations constituted the first group contacted. Interviews were held with 19 adults whose names were drawn from membership lists of two public television stations. One station served a major Eastern metropolitan area; the other was in a relatively small but rather diverse Mid-Atlantic state.

Eleven of these subjects were retired or elderly, six were middle age, and only two of them were young adults. Eight had not been to college, two had earned associate degrees, seven were holders of bachelor's degrees, and two had graduate degrees.

Relatively few of these public television station members associated television with learning. In fact, 14 were able to identify informational and educational programs and series that they viewed but they did not view these programs with any explicit intention to learn something. Two of the subjects had previously enrolled in formal telecourses but were not so enrolled at the time of interview. Three others were examples of what I have termed "fringe learners" -- adults who view television and then make some effort to learn more about the subject of the television broadcast they viewed. All three of these fringe learners had ordered viewers guides or transcripts so they could learn more.

Even if more formal telecourses were available to them, few of these subjects expressed interest in enrolling. Advanced age and level of prior educational attainment were the reasons given for lack of interest in taking telecourses. They were almost unanimous, however, in favoring an increase in the number of televised educational offerings. Most said television was a good way to learn, even though they did not use it for learning themselves. As might be expected, they expressed extremely positive opinions about public television and were generally negative in their criticism of commercial television broadcasting.

Adults who inquired about telecourses by contacting a television broadcasting organization were interviewed in the second small sample survey. Conversations were held with 16 persons whose names were provided by that organization. No attempt was made to select a random sample and the subjects in this group were merely those whose telephone numbers could be ascertained and who were available for interview at the time calls were placed.

Normally distributed among age categories, all of these subjects were caucasian; seven were male and nine female. Two were retired, five employed in the home, four held professional jobs, two were white collar and two were blue collar workers, and one was unemployed. All 16 subscribed to cable television and nine contributed to a public television station. Three were high school graduates, seven had some college, two held bachelor's degrees, and four had earned graduate degrees.

Self-planned learning projects were being conducted by two of these subjects and seven others were taking college courses, correspondence or noncredit courses, or were engaged in training where they worked. Seven others said they were not now engaged in any educational activities. All subjects viewed informational and educational television broadcasts and all were interested in learning something, either for personal growth or because the topic was relevant to their work. Relatively few, however, said they prefer to learn from television. Most liked to take conventional courses but others indicated a preference for using library resources, fieldwork, or other informal methods of study.

Only one of these subjects had taken a telecourse but several others had viewed such courses because the material aided them in campus courses they were taking or in their work. In general they agreed that television was a good way to learn, both for themselves and for others. Two out of three members of this group favored the idea of offering college degree programs over television and most thought that such a degree program would match the quality of campus-based degrees. Those who doubted the quality of televised degree programs cited lack of intellectual exchange between students and faculty members as the primary limiting factor.

This was an active group of learners. They were not fringe learners since they didn't try to learn more about what they viewed on television. Rather they used televised material to augment their other learning activities. Since nine of the 16 subjects were engaged in some active learning, they can be characterized as "committed learners".

Viewers who ordered materials associated with television broadcasts constituted the third group of adults surveyed. They were, by definition, fringe learners since they seemed to move beyond what they viewed and that was true for 18 of the 20 adults in this group. The other two said they ordered materials to give to someone else (e.g. another family member). Their names were obtained from a firm that supplies such supplemental materials for a wide variety of television programs and series.

Equally divided by gender and all caucasian, more than half of these subjects were between 25 and 34 years of age. All but two had earned some college credit and 13 had college degrees. Three were retired, six worked in the home, seven were professionals, one white collar and one blue collar worker were included, and two were unemployed. Representing all regions of the nation, nine subscribed to cable television and 12 contributed to a public television station. Two owned video tape recorders.

While eight of those interviewed reported no current learning activities, all indicated some topic they wanted to study. Four were taking college courses, five reported learning projects they had planned, two were engaged in training at work, and one belonged to an informal study group. Only four of the 20 preferred to learn from television, five indicated a preference for formal courses, and the remainder liked informal methods (libraries, etc.).

Three out of four in this group said television was a good way to learn and only one did not favor offering televised college degree programs. Half did not think that quality could be maintained in a televised program and only a third of them would consider enrolling in such a program. Those who favored televised courses cited lack of distractions, better access, convenience, and low cost as important factors. Those who opposed televised degrees saw them as second-class programs lacking campus atmosphere and interaction with others.

Members of this group combined the characteristics of both fringe learners and committed learners since they obviously all viewed informational and educational television, made an effort to find out more about what they viewed, and engaged in some other educational activities as well.

A crosssection of the general population is an appropriate way to describe members of the last group surveyed. They were all members of a panel of citizens who participate in periodic studies conducted by an established market research organization. This organization was retained to select 20 of its panel members at random and to ascertain their answers to items on the survey instrument tested out earlier with the other three groups.

Members of this fourth group, equally divided between male and female respondents, distributed rather evenly across age and educational attainment categories. Just over half were between 25 and 54 years of age; 13 of the 20 had earned some college credit, and eight who had held one or more academic degrees. All but two were employed (in the home or elsewhere) and three-quarters of the subjects in this group reported they earned more than $20,000 per year.

Viewing public television each week was an activity of each of these subjects; half of them said they watched three hours or more in the preceeding week. While nearly half of the group subscribed to cable television services, only one in three contributed to the support of a public television station.

The desire to gain information and to keep current were the primary reasons given by this group for viewing informational and educational television programs. In descending order, they liked to view current events programming, musical and dramatic shows, science oriented programs, and children's programs. Even though they viewed these programs, however, only one subject -- a 72 year old man -- had attempted to secure any supplemental materials. Thus, he was the lone fringe learner in this group.

Only one in four of the persons in this market research panel group said they were engaged in some kind of organized learning activity. Three reported they were currently conducting a self-planned learning project, one was enrolled in an undergraduate course, one was a graduate student, and one was taking a noncredit course. Clearly this group was less involved in learning -- either formal or informal -- than were any of the other three that were interviewed.

Included in this group of 20 subjects was one person who had taken a telecourse prior to this survey. It is interesting to note that, in this person's opinion, telecourses were not a particularly good way to learn and she was not interested in taking another one. Nor was she enthusiastic about urging others to take such courses.

All but four members of this group named topics that they wanted to learn more about. More traditional ways of learning (e.g., taking a course) were generally most often cited as the preferred format, although individual members of the group expressed a preference for reading, being tutored, direct experience, and television.

Additional data indicated that these subjects viewed their own learning differently than the learning activities of others. Only about half thought television was a good way for them to learn, but the group unanimously agreed that television was a good way to learn in the case of other adults. The 72 year old man thought he was too old to learn from television but, in contrast, he said televised degree programs should be offered for others.

Two-thirds of the total group favored offering televised degree programs, but they divided evenly on the issue of how good such programs would be. Only four said they would consider enrolling in such a degree program, but more than half said they would encourage others to do so. The reasons these subjects gave for their opinions about televised degree programs were similar to the responses of other groups. Convenience and low cost emerge as attractive features of telecourses, but lack of interaction and contact with other students and with faculty members were seen as limitations.

Judging from the responses of this fourth group, the general population is not as involved in learning as some studies of adults cited earlier in this paper suggest. If this group adequately represents the general population (which, of course, is open to question) there are fewer fringe learners and fewer committed learners than the literature contends. In general, then, most adults are probably best described as "observers"; that is, persons who view informational and educational television but who do not use it as a way to learn.

IMPLICATIONS

Prior to suggesting any implications of these four small sample studies, it is well to recognize the limitations of this research. Since these were in fact pilot studies, there was no intention of drawing broad generalizations from the findings. Systematic selection of subjects was not possible in three cases and changes in the instrument occurred from one set of interviews to the next. Clearly any conclusions based on this research must be read with more than a little caution.

These studies do point out, however, the continuing need for providers of adult education to learn more about the clientele they seek to serve. Great strides are being made in telecommunications technology and, thanks to the $150 million Annenberg grant to the Corporation for Public Broadcasting, educational programs for adults are likely to increase both in number and in quality. It is important to learn whether adults will want to make use of televised learning opportunities and, if so, under what conditions. Most adults, especially those over 50 years of age, have had little opportunity to learn from television since their formal learning took place in traditional classrooms. Perhaps they will have to be better oriented to the potential of learning from television before many of them will take advantage of what will be available to them.

Other issues that adult educators might consider in this regard relate to the context within which televised educational material is presented. Despite much rhetoric about self-directed learning, there is the possibility that many adult learners will need structure in order to benefit from what they view. Attention should be given to the study guides and ancillary materials that will accompany these broadcasts. It may be necessary to package these programs so that adult learners can choose the degree of structure they need in order to receive maximum benefits from the experience.

Our population is increasingly composed of older persons and, at the same time, levels of educational attainment are rising. Adult educators should give thought to countering the frequently voiced attitude that "I am too old to learn" and the recurring contention that formal credit-bearing courses are of little value to those who have earned academic degrees. The "credential mentality" associated with learning will have to be modified if television is to become a more pervasive factor in what we so glibly call lifelong learning.

Finally, adult educators ought to think about the attitudes regarding learning and regarding life that television might teach. Perhaps all television broadcasting, whether it is "educational" or not imparts some learning. This learning can be restricting, confining, and narrow, thus limiting the way adults continue to learn and continue to respond to the circumstances of life. On the other hand, televised learning can be liberating and can help adults become ever more self-directed in their learning and self-fulfilled as human beings.

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THE LEARNING PLAN FORMAT: A TECHNIQUE FOR INCORPORATING THE CONCEPT OF LEARNING HOW TO LEARN INTO FORMAL COURSES AND WORKSHOPS

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Abstract

The major purpose of this study was to determine the effects of using a learning plan format in graduate level courses in relation to the students' perceptions of their competencies for self-directed learning, their continuing learning activities, and their teaching style. Graduate students who completed the authors' courses in adult education completed two questionnaires, the Learning Plan Format Follow-Up Survey and the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics routines. Further analyses investigated the responses to selected questions in relation to four variables: 1) education background; 2) students' graduate program; 3) number of adult education courses taken with the author of this study; and 4) present employment situation. As this is research in progress, the findings and implications for this practice will be given at the time of the conference presentation.

INTRODUCTION

Self-Directed Learning

Learning how to learn, becoming an effective self-directed learner, is one of the main elements in the adult learning process (Kidd, 1959; Knowles, 1975, 1980; Smith & Haverkamp, 1977; Tough, 1971). Self-directed learning is a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, to gain certain definite knowledge and skills (Knowles, 1975; Cross, 1981; Smith & Haverkamp, 1977). This learning is usually focused on problem-solving and related to practical topics and how-to-do-it projects (Tough, 1971; Penland, 1977).

Tough (1971) and Knowles (1975) have outlined basic skills that are needed for self-directed learning. Among those skills are the following:

1. The ability to decide what knowledge and skills to learn;
2. The ability to diagnose learning needs realistically, with help from teachers and peers;
3. The ability to translate learning needs into learning objectives in a form that makes it possible for their accomplishments to be assessed;
4. The ability to relate to teachers as facilitators, helpers, or consultants, and to take the initiative in making use of their resources;
5. The ability to relate to peers collaboratively, to see them as resources for learning;
6. The ability to identify human and material resources appropriate to different kinds of learning objectives;

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7. The ability to select effective strategies for making use of learning resources and to use these strategies skillfully and with initiative;
8. The ability to gain knowledge or skill from the resources utilized;
9. The ability to evaluate one's own work and get feedback from others about progress;
10. The ability to detect and cope with personal blocks to learning;
11. The ability to renew motivation for learning when it lags.

Tough (1971) introduces the premise that "major changes are needed in the various institutions of education" (p. 147) to better foster this process of self-directed learning. He states that educators must abandon the concept that "we know best, we are on the pedestal, we will do all of the planning and decision making" (p. 11, 1979). We need to move toward the instructor and students being equal as persons, increasing the students choice of how and what they learn, and providing assistance with self-planned learning (Tough, 1971).

Hiemstra (1981) has proposed a formal policy recommendation pertaining to this concept of self-directed learning in relation to the training of adult educators. He states that, "In conjunction with their respective institutions, adult educators will encourage and utilize the theories and practices of self-directed learning in classroom contact and application efforts" (p. 17). He further identifies the need for adult educators to "recognize the needs of their students by applying self-directed learning techniques to their own classroom settings where applicable" (p. 18).

Smith and Haverkamp (1977) agree with the thinking of Tough and Hiemstra. They believe "that learning how to learn activities should be built into the design of courses and workshops" (p. 9). One way to accomplish this is to use the learning contract or learning plan format as part of the activities for all courses of study (Knowles, 1975; Tough, 1979).

Learning Contracts/Plans

The learning contract or plan provides a framework for describing what a participant will learn as a result of a specified learning activity. The contract or plan usually consists of four major components: 1) learning objectives; 2) learning resources and strategies; 3) evaluation of learning activities; and 4) a time line for completion (Berte, 1975; Knowles, 1975; Lindquist, 1975). A key to the development of a learning plan or contract is to make the learning activities "specific enough for students to proceed, yet flexible to permit initiative and creativity" (Avakia, p. 54).

Learning contracts or plans have many uses in the education of adults in a formal setting. They can: 1) provide a way to deal with the wide differences with any group of adult learners (Knowles, 1980; Linquist, 1975); 2) increase student motivation for learning (Schluster, 1979); and 3) facilitate the development of mutual respect between the educator and participants (Berte, 1975; Knowles, 1975; Schluster, 1979); 4) provide for a more individualized mode of instruction (Avakian, 1974; Berte, 1975; Knowles, 1975; Linquist, 1975); and 5) foster the skills of self-directed learning (Knowles, 1975; Linquist, 1975; Lehman, 1975; and Tough, 1979). This study is focused on use of learning contracts or plans to foster the competencies of self-directed learning in post-secondary education.

The Learning Plan Format in Graduate Adult Education Courses

The author of this study has incorporated the concept of learning how to learn (assisting a person to become a more effective self-directed learner) into a formal educational program by the use of a learning plan format as part of the requirements for her graduate courses in adult education. The learning plan consists of five components: 1) learning objectives; 2) learning resources and strategies; 3) evidence of accomplishment of ojectives; 4) criteria and means for validating evidence; and 5) time line for completing objectives (Knowles, 1975).

Students primarily use the course learning objectives prepared by the instructor. Students may also develop their own in addition to or in place of those given by the instructor. The learning strategies and resources describe how students will accomplish each objective. Resources may be both human and material. Examples of possible strategies that students use are the writing of research papers, field trips, analyzing case studies, reviewing the literature and interviewing. Evidence that students have accomplished a specific objective is presented in a number of formats. For example, for the knowledge domain, students prepare research papers, essays, or make in-class presentations, and for the skill domain complete performance exercises or prepare video-taped performances. The criteria and means for validating evidence includes both a description of how the outcome will be judged and who will judge those outcomes. For example, appropriate criteria for knowledge objectives might include comprehensiveness, depth, precision, clarity, and/or scholarliness. Validators might include such people as the course instructor, co-workers, supervisors, class participants and other faculty at the institution. The time line indicates when the students will complete each objective.

The process of developing these learning plans consists of three steps. In step one, the instructor gives to all class members a number of handouts related to the course (e.g., course syllabus, bibliography, outline on how to develop an individual learning plan). Within the first week of class, students have the responsibility of familiarizing themselves with all the materials. They are asked to think through the types of competencies (knowledge, skills, attitudes) they wish to develop related to the course content.

In step two, students complete an initial draft of their own learning plan. During the third step of the process, students share a draft of their learning plan with a consultation team of three to five class members. Based on these discussions and further input by the instructor, students then may revise the initial draft of their plan. It should be noted that sutdents do find their ideas change throughout the course, and thus do re-negotiate their learning plan with the instructor.

Student Evaluation of Learning Plan Format

Based on individual course evaluations, the majority of the students appeared to like and value the use of the learning plan format as part of the formal teaching/learning process. Three major themes emerge form those evaluations related to using the learning plan format. The students believed: 1) they had more responsibility for thier own learning in comparison with other formats used in formal graduate courses; 2) they had a great deal of flexibility in how they would learn the course content; and 3) they were able to match their own learning needs/desires with those required by the instructor.

FOCUS OF THE STUDY

The initial reactions of the students to the learning plan format were very positive and the students appear to become more self-directed in their learning. The author of this study, however, had questions related to the carryover effects of using such a format related to the students own continuing learning activities and teaching styles. The major questions addressed in this study are as follows:

1. What are students' opinions related to the value and worth of using a learning plan format once they are no longer involved with formal course work in adult education?
2. Has there been any self-perceived effect on the students' competencies for self-directed learning as a result of using the learning plan format in a formal graduate course?
3. Have the students used the competencies of self-directed learning in personal learning experiences once they have completed the course(s)?
4. Has there been any change in the ways former students teach as a result of using the learning plan format?
5. What is the person's current readiness for self-directed learning as measured by the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale?

METHODOLOGY

The procedure used in this study to answer the questions posed was survey research. Fifty-four graduate students who enrolled in the author's graduate courses in adult education during the past two years comprised the population for the study. The majority of these students are not studying adult education as their major field.

Two survey instruments, the Learning Plan Format Follow-Up Survey and the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale, were mailed to each student, along with a cover letter asking for their cooperation in this study.

The Learning Plan Format Follow-Up Survey was developed by the author based on a literature review and initial evaluation feedback on using the learning plan format. This questionnaire consists primarily of Likert-type items, with some multiple choice and open-ended questions. The questions focusing on their opinions related to the worth and value of the learning plan format, their perceptions of their own self-directed learning skills, and what if any effect this has had on their own continuing learning and teaching activities. There are also questions related to demographic variables (e.g., educational background, present program of study). The instrument is six pages in length and is printed on yellow paper.

A team of five experts reviewed the instrument for content and face validity. The reviewers included: Dr. Stanley Freeman, Professor, University of Maine at Orono; Dr. Lucy Guglielmino, Guglielmino & Associates, Florida; Dr. Kay Haverkamp, Assistant Dean of Learner Services, University of New Hampshire; Dr. Roger Hiemstra, Professor, Syracuse University; and Dr. Malcolm Knowles, Professor Emeritis, North Carolina State University. Changes were made in the instrument according to their recommendations. In addition, a pre-test of the instrument was done with graduate students who had enrolled in adult education courses with the author, but who were not included in the population for this study. A total of 9 people, which is approximately 16% of the population to be surveyed, were included in the pre-test group.

The second instrument used, the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS) is authored by Dr. Lucy M. Guglielmino. The SDLRS is a self-report instrument consisting of Likert-type items. Developed as part of a doctoral research project (Guglielmino, 1977), "the SDLRS is based on the results of a Delphi survey of 14 authorities in the area of self-directed learning, including Malcolm Knowles and Allen Tough" (Guglielmino, 1981). The initial administration of the instrument was with 307 subjects from Georgia, Canada and Virginia. A reliability factor of .87 was estimated. "Factor analysis indicated the presence of eight factors in self-directed learning: openness to learning opportunities, self-concept as an effective learner, initiative and independence in learning, informed acceptance of responsibilities for one's own learning, love of learning, creativity, furture orientation, and ability to use basic study and problem solving skills" (Guglielmino, 1981). The SDLRS has been used in a variety of research studies focused on both prediction and diagnosis of self-directed learning readiness; and on evaluation of programs designed to increase self-directed learning. The reason for using the SDLRS in this study is related to the latter purpose.

The results of this study are descriptive in nature. The data were analyzed using the descriptive statistics routines in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The description of how all respondents collectively respond to the two instruments was done in simple percentages. Further analyses investigated the responses to selected questions in relation to four variables: 1) educational background; 2) students' graduate program; 3) number of adult education courses taken with the author of this study; and 4) present employment situation. Chi square tests of independence were used to ascertain whether there were relationships between the various factors listed above and the variance in respondents answers to chosen questions. A significance level of .05 was used in the Chi square analysis.

*Please Note - As this is research in progress, the results of this research study were not available at the time of the writing of the proceedings for the conference on Lifelong Learning Research. Thus, the findings and implications for practice and research will be given at the time of the conference presentation.

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PROGRAM DESIGN AND STAFF TRAINING CONSULTANT ROLE IN DEVELOPING A COMPREHENSIVE EXTENSION PROGRAM FOR YOUNG FAMILIES IN FINLAND

G. L. Carter, Jr.[1]

Abstract

Bringing about substantial changes in an organization's programming thrust and mode of operation is a complex task, especially when the changes require that "principal actors" learn their way through the change. A project in Finland to initiate a significant program thrust for serving the interests of young families is a case in point, as this mid-point analysis reveals.

Opportunities for professional educators to participate in developmental activities outside the USA have increased greatly in recent years. Most often, such opportunities have been in relation to competence educators are perceived to have in some substantive, subject-matter area (especially areas of technology).

This paper will briefly analyze a project where the consultant was selected for perceived expertise in the design of comprehensive, nonformal educational programs, rather than the substantive subject-matter of concern. The analysis will include the evolution of the program and training design, with reference to U.S. programs with young families observed by study teams. The analysis is based on observations made by participant observation, working documents, structured needs analysis surveys and participant-reported reactions.

The context for the analysis is a project being undertaken in Finland by Martha Organization, a membership organization, primarily of women, which employs home economists to provide extension programs. As in many other countries, leaders of the organization have observed that their extension program efforts are directed mostly to the interests of middle-aged and older women. Yet, there is growing evidence of need among young families for programs which home economists are, or should be, competent to provide.

Martha Organization secured W. K. Kellogg Foundation support to develop, pilot test and establish an educational program for young families, designed to enable them to more adequately cope with critical problems faced in establishing themselves emotionally, economically, and socially in situations often strange to their early moorings. With increased frequency, young families in Finland are locating in population dense, industrializing, urbanizing areas. It is being observed that, concurrent with the movement of young families from a traditionally rural environment to areas of high population density, there has been an increasing rate of broken families through divorce, a dramatic increase in the proportion of both parents working away from home, and a growing concern for the occurrence of alcoholism among young adults.

The project, initiated in 1979, is now into the third of a four-year plan. The original plan called for the design, development, pilot testing and establishment of a program in each of the 16 administrative program districts in the country with the purpose of helping young families learn things that will enable them to cope more adequately with their situations.

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Martha Organization was founded in 1899 to promote the quality and standard of life for homes. It is a non-political, volunteer membership organization for homes, housewives and women, concerned with cultural and civic education and home economics extension work, in both rural and urban areas. There are 92,000 members (6,000 of whom are youth members--junior Marthas) organized into 2,000 clubs. Since 1907 the organization has received government subsidy to cover about half the salary and travel costs for employed home economists. The organization employs about 70 professional home economists who are organized into 16 district staffs to serve the Finnish speaking population of the country.

As recent as 1950, one-third of Finland's population lived in urban areas. That proportion has increased until now roughly two-thirds live in urban areas. That shift in location of population is concurrent with changing life styles and daily living patterns. In moving from rural to urban areas, young families are leaving behind their extended families.

There has been a dramatic increase in the proportion of mothers of school-age children who work outside the home--by 1978 the proportion had reached 78 percent. That's up from about 55 percent as recent as 1970. The percentage of mothers with preschool children was just slightly lower than for mothers of all age children.

EVOLUTION OF THE PROJECT

The organization has judged that problems associated with changing societal conditions call for educational measures that will assist young families: (1) adapt effectively to their changing environment, and (2) cope adequately with day-to-day living situations. Special areas of needs identified included: (1) consumer education, home management skills and family financial management; (2) parenting and child-rearing practices; and (3) food habits and improved nutrition.

After having been considered over a period of at least two years, a request for funding was first submitted to W. K. Kellogg Foundation in April, 1976. In July, 1977, I was asked to consult with the organization's headquarter staff in further developing the project proposal. A four-year project was funded starting October 1, 1979 (in the amount of $542,000). The foundation approved a plan in relatively broad outline.

At the beginning of the funding period I was invited to assist the staff in developing an operational plan. By that time a "project staff" had been named, consisting of a project director, an associate director, and secretary-office manager. The project staff is supported by the organization's staff, including specialists in home economics and horticulture, a project steering committee, and an advisory committee of representatives from a variety of agencies and institutions with interests in the general public and cultural welfare and young people in particular.

The original plan was that the project would be started in two provinces (Martha districts) the first year (1979-80); two provinces the second year (1980-81); six provinces in the third year (1981-82); and the remaining six provinces the fourth and final year (1982-83).

ANALYSIS

As a consultant I perceived my role to be that of assisting the project staff (1) in figuring out what needed to be done to guide efforts to achieve the purposes of the project, and (2) in increasing their competence in executing the plan. A consultation visit is made once per year.

Consultation began at the time the project was being initiated (October, 1979). During the first consultation I observed an organization with a competent, motivated staff of dedicated home economists and a membership of gracious, concerned Marthas, uncertain how to fulfill their obligations to the purposes of the project, but willing to try. In addition, there was a universe of interest and enthusiastic public support. The enthusiasm, dedication and support have continued. An outstanding job is being done of enlisting and maintaining various and appropriate public support for the project. For example, during the first two years 250 newspaper and magazine articles have been published, several in publications with national circulation.

However, there was not a detailed, written work-plan to guide the first and subsequent years. The following plan emerged during the first consultation: The target population would be two-parent families with young children living in the more urban areas. The decision to focus on more "traditional" families was based on two major factors: (1) 90 percent of families in Finland are still two-parent, and (2) the involvement of Martha members in roles as volunteers could best be tested by having them work with the type of families with which they are most familiar and comfortable.

A pilot area would consist of 24 young families living in close proximity divided into clusters of four families, with Martha volunteers designated to work with one four-family cluster on a one-to-one basis and as a small group. In addition to managing the entire effort, the project staff was to be responsible for providing organizational leadership and training assistance for district extension staffs, develop instructional and resource materials, and engage in some training of volunteer Marthas (to the extent necessary as demonstrations to district staffs). The district extension staff would provide training for Martha volunteers and do some subject-matter training with young families in matters for which volunteers could not be adequately prepared.

An in-depth needs analysis would be undertaken by interviewing prospective young families and Martha volunteers. An evaluation would be initiated to proceed throughout the four years of the project.

It was suggested to the staff that the project required them to take a pro-active rather than a reactive/responding role (the more typical pattern for their regular work with the organization).

A needs analysis survey was conducted early in the first project year through a relatively structured interview with target families. Information sought had to do with family situation, work, education, housing arrangements, income, expenses, indebtedness, how family decisions are made, who does the family chores, and subjects on which they would like to have additional information (nutrition, finance, shopping, home upkeep, family relations, child care, leisure time). Nutrition, finance and child care were the subjects most frequently named (two-thirds or more of those interviewed). Family relations was a distant fourth (by less than half of those interviewed). All of those interviewed expressed interest in participating in the project.

During the consultation visit at the end of the first project year, it was observed that activities with young families and Martha volunteers had been mostly group meetings consisting mainly of verbal presentations and explanations, even when the learning outcomes intended were relatively more complex than could be accomplished by providing learners with nothing but additional information. There was no explicit plan for continuing and extending, to other areas in the same provinces, the pilot projects started during the first year.

It appeared important that the project staff become conscious of and guided by the observation that carrying out the project would require that all groups of "significant actors" engage in activities from which they might learn and consequently perform more adequately their functions in regards to the project's purposes. It was pointed out that young families have not typically participated in organized learning activities focusing on some of their critical concerns. Martha members who serve in volunteer "teaching" roles are engaging in responsibilities not within the tradition of their organizational participation. District extension staff members have had little experience working with young families and no experience in training volunteers to function as teachers. The project staff has not had experience conducting and managing such a comprehensive, complex program, or in managing a grant-funded project.

In order to make more explicit the separate learning requirements of the various groups of "actors" in the project, I proposed the second year's work be organized around a plan I referred to as a "learning system." The learning needs of each group of actors (participating young families, Martha volunteers, district extension staffs, and the project and support staff) were to be examined and organized as separate sub-systems. The recommendation was accepted and fairly detailed plans developed.

It was pointed out that, for the system to be made functional, major energies must focus on meeting the needs of the selected, named young families, the Martha volunteers and extension staff responsible for the selected pilot areas. Activities peripheral to such purposes should be reduced to a minimum. Doing so is difficult for a staff accustomed to responding to as many requests as possible (for speaking engagements, festivals and other celebrations, various organizational activities, etc.).

During the consultant visit at the end of the second project year (August, 1981) it was observed that a conscious effort was being made to have the learning system idea guide the project activities. However, there appeared to be a need for further clarifying the functions to be performed by the various groups of significant "actors" in the learning sub-systems. The project staff needed to increasingly focus and concentrate efforts on facilitating and observing the functioning of the pilot projects: (1) to increase the prospects for learning how the pilot projects can be made to serve the intended purposes; (2) to learn from the experience so it can be more adequately used in other situations; and (3) to enable them to constantly refine what constitutes the "critical functions" for each group of actors.

A further elaboration of the learning system idea was introduced. This elaboration consisted of seven elements proposed by Ralph W. Tyler by which a learning activity or program can be analyzed to determine if all factors that are known to facilitate learning through intentional, purposeful activities are adequately provided. By such an analysis deficiencies can be detected in order to take corrective measures: (1) Is there adequate reason for the learner to engage in efforts to learn? (2) Do learners have sufficiently clear what they are trying to learn so efforts are purposeful? (3) Are learning activities appropriate and within capabilities of learners to engage? (4) Do learning activities provide ample opportunity for practicing behaviors to be learned? (5) Are there arrangements for providing learners clues to what they do well and where they are having difficulties? (6) Do learners get experience in applying what they are trying to learn to other situations? (7) Do learners get feedback when they try what they are learning in their living/work situations?

At the beginning there had been an expectation that studying extension work in general and work with young families in particular in the U.S. would provide helpful guidanceand experience. In arranging for the study tours in the U.S. for project personnel, I had made every effort to locate and schedule the most innovative, effective programs. What was observed by the two study team visits and the more extended study for the Associate Project Director was that most efforts of extension in the U.S. in the interest of young families consist of: (1) organized en mass, group instructional activities; (2) efforts to get young families to participate in on-going extension activities; and (3) preparation of print and other materials for distribution en mass.

What was observed which is proving potentially useful include: (1) the Expanded Foods and Nutrition Program (EFNEP) which has direct relevance to the involvement of Martha volunteers as teachers and extension agents as trainer-supervisors; (2) the Family Focus Center program in Chicago with specific attention to problems of young families; (3) some instructional materials that have been prepared (especially those from a pilot project in Virginia[2]); (4) the planned, pro-active approach of some extension home economists; (5) the general interest in extension for doing more effective work with young families.

SYNTHESIS

The project has the potential for demonstrating an approach to nonformal education for a much neglected segment of society. The demonstration has potential both within and outside Finland. Expectations of what could be accomplished within a period of four years are proving to have not been realistic. What must be learned by all groups of "significant actors" is extensive and complex. Typical previous experience (both for individuals and organizations) in extension home economics work has not provided adequate preparation for this effort. Mass distribution of information will not serve the intended purposes. Neither will efforts directed solely at getting young families into organized, scheduled group and organizational activities.

Having a complex organization (such as one with a staff of 70 professionals and a membership of 92,000) make substantial changes in the focus of some of its energies and resources is not easily or simply accomplished. Focus of the role of consultant in this case, has been guided by a notion of what might be done that could more adequately facilitate learning in keeping with the purposes of the project.

Progress is being made. Expectations are optimistic. The role of consultant in such an endeavor is a challenging one. It is especially challenging with respect to differences in cultures and traditions, and especially language. Many of the project activities can only be observed by the consultant through translations. A facilities with the local language (Finnish) would be a distinctive asset.

This analysis has only touched the surface. Nothing has been said about the evaluation efforts which appear to be getting underway during this third project year. There has been no analysis of the activities to which the consultant has had access, the resulting observations (except indirectly), and the variety of opportunities the consultant has been provided for contributing to the project. Only general reference has been made to specific activities provided in the project and results obtained.

As a concluding comment it should be pointed out that during the consultation visit at the end of the second project year (August, 1981), a one-day seminar was held involving participating Martha volunteers, district extension staff members, organizational leaders, the project staff and representatives of support staff. Participants in the seminar reported experiences in the project which provide encouragement that the learning system design is working to a limited but encouraging degree.

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[2] See Linda Ayers, "Final Report: Young Families Project for Pittsylvania, West Central District," Virginia Cooperative Extension Service, Virginia State University, Petersburg, Virginia.

THE OCCUPATIONALLY-ORIENTED ADULT PART-TIME LEARNER

Marguerite Ceschi-Smith[1]

Abstract

This paper presents a profile of the occupationally-oriented adult part-time learner derived from both quantitative and qualitative research designs. Age appears to have a significant influence upon the dimensions of adult learners who pursue courses for occupationally-related reasons. The paper concludes with a series of implications for adult educators which should help them develop and provide appropriate learning programs and experiences for the occupationally-oriented adult part-time learner.

INTRODUCTION

Occupationally-related factors are recognized in the literature as the largest and most important set of reasons why many people are participating part-time in courses offered by universities. This is not surprising when one considers the fact that most men and an increasing number of women spend an average of 37½ hours per week at work. The work place, as well as society are experiencing rapid and dramatic changes, many of which require additional learning. The increase in adult part-time enrolments at universities reflects a need to learn in order to cope with our changing world. Research in adult education and participation has contributed to an understanding of the adult part-time learner. It is known that age and to a lesser degree, sex, have an influence on reason for participation. Young adults, particularly men aged 19 to 39 years participate for occupationally-related reasons, but few studies have explored in any depth the reasons why people participate to meet their occupationally-related needs.

The purpose of this study was to examine the socio-psychological dimensions of the occupationally-oriented adult part-time learner at the University of Guelph, by combining quantitative and qualitative research approaches. Few theoretical models adequately explain why people participate in adult education and therefore, the theoretical framework for this study combined Houle's and Boshier's research on participation, Maslow's motivational concepts and Levinson's theory on adult developmental psychology.

OBJECTIVES

The use of combined quantitative and qualitative research designs dictated the use of different approaches for gathering and analyzing the data. Part A of this study was quantitative in nature and had the following objective: to identify the predominant reason for participation in degree credit courses and to determine whether it varies by sex or age. Part B of this study was more qualitative and had the following major objective: to investigate the nature of adults' occupational orientation and the reasons which prompted them to participate in part-time degree credit courses.

LITERATURE REVIEW - THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Learning Orientations

Houle developed a typology consisting of three learning orientations which he found adult students possessed in their pursuit of continuing education. The orientations he discovered after intensive interviews with twenty-two continuing learners were: the goal-oriented who used education as a means of accomplishing fairly clear-cut objectives; the activity-oriented who took part in continuing education activities for reasons other than the learning; and the learning-oriented who sought knowledge for its own sake. These three orientations have shaped the framework from which subsequent studies have proceeded.

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The three-factor typology which Houle developed has been used extensively by Sheffield (1964) and Boshier (1971) who developed instruments to determine adults' reasons for participation. Boshier developed the Education Participation Scale (E.P.S.) which, when subject to principal components analysis identified six factors, representing six "reasons for participation". It was concluded that adults' motivations to participate were more complex than Houle had originally thought. The one element which has been lacking in all these studies is that "the actual behavior of participation is rarely studied....orientation towards learning has emerged as an important psychological concept in attempting to explain reasons for participation in adult education, but its relationship to participation behavior has not been established clearly". (Dickinson and Clark, 1975 p.4)

Motivational Concepts

Maslow (1970) contends that man has both "growth" and "deficiency" needs which motivate his behavior. Maslow developed his theory of motivation based on a hierarchy of needs which are arranged in a prepotent fashion. The first three needs; psysiological, safety and security, and love were categorized as instigators of deficiency motivated behavior while esteem and self-fulfilment needs were associated with growth motivated behavior. The failure to satisfy basic needs would in most individuals hinder or stop any behavior which would permit the individual to realize his esteem and self-fulfilment needs.

Boshier used Maslow's motivational concepts to develop the E.P.S. and introduced the term "life-chance" as a synonym for "deficiency-motivation" and the term "life-space" to represent "growth-motivation" which represents social space concepts. It was found that "growth" or "life-space" oriented people participated in adult education as an expression rather than in an attempt to cope with some aspect of their life. "Life-chance" or "deficiency-oriented" people participated because of a need to survive and acquire utilitarian knowledge, attitudes and skills. (Boshier, 1977)

Life-Stages

Investigations of adult development have been a recent phenomenon due, in part, to a prevailing attitude that adulthood was one long plateau in which little or no development took place. The most comprehensive, longitudinal study which has been conducted to the present time is Levinson's (1976) work, which unfortunately was limited to men. Due to the scarcity of comprehensive research on women's life cycle development, and because preliminary findings indicate that women's development may be similar to men's, Levinson's theory of adult development also contributed much to the theoretical framework for this study.

Levinson suggested that adulthood consists of "transitional phases" followed by a period of stable years, each characterized by different tasks. During a stable period (lasting 6 to 7 years) a person makes important decisions about life style and direction and then works to pursue personal values and goals to build a satisfactory life structure. At some point, the assumptions, conditions, and behavior patterns of a stable period become inadequate to cope with changed circumstances in life. At this point an adult enters a transitional period (lasting 4 to 5 years) in which the stable life structure is altered. The transitional period can be an uncomfortable or threatening time during which a person evaluates his life (e.g. marriage, career) and makes decisions on what to maintain, redefine or abandon. The three stages of adult development identified by Levinson are: Young Adulthood (19 to 39 years), Middle Adulthood (40 to 59 years) and Late Adulthood (60 years and older).

METHOD

To explore the socio-psychological dimensions of the occupationally-oriented adult part-time learner this study used two distinctively different methodologies. Part A used a quantitative approach employing Boshier's E.P.S. to measure "reason for participation". The data from 457 questionnaires were subjected to principal components analysis and varimax orthogonal rotation and yielded six factors. The respondents who scored their highest mean factor score in a particular factor were grouped, thereby identifying those adult learners whose predominant reason for participation was occupationally-related. Part B, using a qualitative methodology involved personal interviews with 27 randomly selected occupationally-oriented adult part-time learners. The interviews were tape recorded and verbatim transcripts made which were analyzed by a process of inductive classification. An attempt was made to stratify the interview sample using Levinson's developmental stages.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the E.P.S. which was administered to all part-time students at the University of Guelph and realized a 54 percent return, yielded six "reasons for participation". The identified factors were labelled to reflect their inherent meanings and were the following: Escape/Stimulation, Social Relationships, Social Welfare, Professional Advancement, Cognitive Interest and External Expectations. Age and sex appeared to have an influence in determining the "reason for participation". When individuals were grouped according to their highest mean factor score, a large percentage (34%) took part primarily for reasons of Professional Advancement. For men [illegible]7%) in Young Adulthood (19 to 39 years) Professional Advancement, the factor which reflects a desire to advance within one's occupation was more important than any other factor. This finding was not surprising and is consistent with Levinson's theory which contends that people in Young Adulthood strive to establish themselves within an occupation (Levinson, 1976 p.22) and therefore pursue degree credit courses to help them realize their ambitions. The importance of Professional Advancement for women (25%) in Middle Adulthood (40 to 59 years) may reflect the desire of women in this age group to re-enter the work force. Their children are growing up and leaving home permitting them the time to pursue other activities. No adults 60 years and older participated for Professional Advancement reasons indicating that occupation is no longer a primary concern.

Based on the analysis and interpretation of descriptive data derived from personal interviews with 27 adult learners, it appears that the nature of an adult's occupational orientation is influenced, in part, by sex and life cycle position. The nature of the adult's occupational orientation appears to progress through various stages, which are similar to, and consistent with, the stages found in adult developmental psychology. It was noted that Levinson's Young Adult category, (19 to 39 years) possessed two groups with different perceptions, aged 19 to 29 and 30 to 39 years.

Young Adults (19 to 29 years) pursue courses to acquire information and skills with which to perform more effectively in their jobs. As well, they take part in courses which they perceive will be helpful and useful for some determined, or as yet undetermined, future goal or benefit. Factors such as the present state of the economy and the subsequent pressure to realize a higher income due in part to the needs of a growing family, exerted a considerable degree of influence on men, and to a lesser degree, on women 30 to 39 years. Men and women in this age group also participate because of a desire to change jobs, to advance in their present occupation and, in some cases, to acquire the information and skills needed to cope with a new job. People in this age category are generally settled and actively pursuing a career. They perceive courses as important, helping them to realize their career aspirations. Women in Middle Adulthood (40 to 59 years) participate in courses because they are perceived as helpful in terms of re-entering the labour force which, in turn, will permit them to realize a degree of financial self-sufficiency. Men in this age category participate primarily because they are experiencing changes, e.g. techological changes in their jobs which require additional learning.

This study found that family, whether nuclear or extended, exerts a considerable amount of influence on some participants' educational and occupational goals and aspirations. The family related pressures which are experienced relate primarily to the needs of a growing family with the subsequent pressure to realize a higher income. Women in Middle Adulthood (40 to 59 years) pursue courses which will permit them re-entry into the labour force due, in part, to fear of a spouse's death and the desire to become financially self-sufficient.

Occupationally-oriented adult learners pursue courses because of the desire and need to acquire credentials. This finding is not surprising given the increasing demand within many occupational fields for credentials. The adults in this study were pursuing degrees which in turn, would permit them greater flexibility in their occupational choices and allow for advancement and the realization of greater financial returns.

Each interview participant was given a description of Maslow's and Boshier's definitions of growth (life-space) and deficiency (life-chance) motivations and then asked to discuss how they perceived themselves. A large percentage (70%) alluded to a deficiency in educational credentials and a desire for growth in occupational terms as having motivated them to participate.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PROGRAM PLANNING

Based on the findings of this study the following suggestions are offered to adult educators and to institutions which deliver adult learning opportunities:

1. A large proportion of adult part-time students participate in degree credit courses for occupationally-related reasons. Many are pursuing a degree because of an increasing emphasis on credentials in many occupational fields. Due to the rapid changes occurring within the occupational structure and the resultant need to continually upgrade and learn in order to keep up with these changes, universities need to offer diploma or certificate programs, as well as courses, which reflect the changing demands of the economy.
2. Occupationally-oriented learners possess both growth and deficiency motivation in their pursuit of degree credit courses. They are deficient in educational credentials but growth motivated in terms of their careers. With a better understanding of the motivations of the occupationally-oriented adult learner, adult educators can develop appropriate objectives and learning experiences to meet the needs of this particular group of people.
3. This study has confirmed that life cycle position has an influence on the nature of the adult learner's occupational orientation. This study has also found that Levinson's Young Adult category possesses two distinctively different groups, 19 to 29 years and 30 to 39 years. The implication of this finding to the field of adult education is that appropriate objectives and learning experiences be developed to meet the needs of these two groups of adult learners.
4. Considering the large number of adult learners who participate for occupationally-related reasons, universities could attract an even larger number by employing appropriate marketing techniques.

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UNIVERSITY STUDENTS REASONS FOR VOLUNTEERING

Terry H. Chapman[1]

Abstract

This paper has been adapted from the author's dissertation at the University of Missouri-Columbia which explored why students decide to volunteer in social service agencies while pursuing a degree. It has important implications for faculty, student development administrators and staffs, and social service agencies.

INTRODUCTION

Volunteer activity has steadily become a more important part of American community life due to the increased need to discover sources of human service production while funding sources dry up. A 1974 Census Bureau survey estimated that 37 million Americans over age 14 were offering volunteer services. (Wilson, 1976, p. 17) The U.S. Department of Labor estimated that by 1980 volunteer workers would have contributed $30 billion annually to the U.S. economy. (Wilson, 1976, p. 17).

Federal government programs such as ACTION, Peace Corps, and VISTA have helped institutionalize volunteering although federal support for the development of volunteer-staffed programs will now probably continue to diminish. Public interest has been steadily increasing based on a rapidly accelerating need to develop more "personpower" particularly in the human service fields in the U.S.A.

The college student volunteer movement began receiving attention in the 1960's when student activism surfaced at many colleges and universities and students became more interested in acquiring "first-hand" experience in politics than in classroom activities. Their interest generally was demonstrated in two main areas of voluntarism: political activism and mental health. During the period 1955-1965, a concerted attempt to recruit college students caused a rapid growth in the number of state hospitals using students as volunteers. (Theodore, 1973) Mental health volunteering reflected their desire to protest in ways which would improve the community. Mental health programs received both national attention and increased funding and local programs frequently featured citizen involvement through volunteers serving in various capacities.

The relative lack of college student interest, however, in community volunteering was reflected by an estimate of 8 percent of Berkeley students in 1965 who indicated any interest in community service projects. (Katz, 1965) Several higher education institutions opened volunteer offices during the early 1960's, notably Michigan State University with an estimated 10,000 students involved in volunteering in 1969. Approximately 400,000 student volunteers were involved in some volunteer capacity in 1971 ranging from tutoring to mental health to politics. (Peterson, 1971)

Another trend which has continued to grow and directly influence the importance of college and university student volunteering has been experiential learning. Antioch College instituted the cooperative education program and was one of the first schools to develop the experiential education concept in curriculum development. Northeastern University and the University of Maryland have had a long history of cooperative and extension education involving volunteerism and experiential learning components.

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Only limited empirical research has been conducted concerning individual volunteers in college or university volunteer programs and David Horton Smith states that "there is no existing theory in the literature relating all of these factors--contextual, personal, situational--to each other in a comprehensive model that attempts to explain various kinds of individual participation in organized voluntary action." (Smith, 1972, p. 32)

Voluntary action as defined by Smith is "that which gives personal meaning to life. It is (action) which one freely chooses to do either for enjoyment in the short term and/or from commitment to some longer-term goal that is not merely a manifestation of bio-social man, socio-political man, or economic man." (Smith, 1972, p. 163) He summarizes the types of variables as contextual--generally the historical and bio-physical factors; the personal--generally the social background, social roles, personality and capacities, and attitudes of the individual and the situational factors--i.e., the specific stimuli relevant to individual action.

Extensive research has been done on Smith's personal factors in explaining voluntary action in general but little work has been done specifically on individual volunteers. The specific question of what actually motivates individuals to volunteer in social service programs has received very little research attention.

PURPOSE AND PROCEDURES

A study was done with University of Missouri-Columbia students (N=156) to identify their reasons for deciding to volunteer at social agencies in the Columbia area. Another question was whether selected demographic variables had any relationship to the types of reasons for volunteering cited by the students. The variables were age; sex; school classification (Freshman, etc.); curriculum major; on/off campus residence; previous volunteer experience; previous paid work experience; volunteering in program related to career interest; part-time/full-time; course requirement or not; and participation in on and off-campus organized activities.

There was no existing instrument that would help identify motivational factors or reasons for deciding to volunteer so a likert-type questionnaire was devised with thirty-two possible reasons. Respondents were directed to rate all of the reasons as to how important they had been in their own decision to volunteer during the 1978-79 academic year.

A principal components analysis and varimax rotation of factors was conducted and nine (9) factors (types of reasons) were identified. Cattell's Scree test (Cattell, 1966) was utilized to reduce the nine factors to five non-trivial factors which were then named: 1) Academic; 2) Adult Influence; 3) Community Need; 4) Experiential; 5) Personal. These factors were then used to test for relationship to the demographic variables discussed above.

FINDINGS

The university student responses (N=156) indicated that the most important reasons for volunteering were, in order:

"Volunteering offered me opportunity to work in preferred career field"
"Volunteering offered me opportunity to 'learn by doing'"
"I wanted to help other people"
"Volunteering offered me opportunity to explore a career field"
"Volunteering would give me experience with specific client group such as aged, gifted, retarded, youth, women, men, etc."

The responses showed, in order, the following reasons receiving the highest mean score:

"Volunteering offered me opportunity to 'learn by doing'"
"I wanted to help other people"
"Volunteering offered me opportunity to learn new ideas"
"Volunteering offered me opportunity to work in preferred career field"
"Volunteering would give me experience with specific client group such as aged, gifted, retarded, youth, women, men, etc."

The most important reasons cited by university students and the reasons which received the highest mean scores were definitely not those in the Community Need area, which is a striking contrast to community change reasons for doing volunteer work in the 1960s. The prominently mentioned reasons were experiential in nature with an interesting exception--"I wanted to help other people". This reason appeared prominently in the responses and tends to confirm that altruism may still be popular. The fact that students cite it after career exploration needs may mean that they are most concerned with "building" a career foundation through volunteer experiences but are also concerned with helping other persons grow and develop. Significant relationships ($p =<.05$) were found between some of the demographic variables and the types of reasons cited by students but the relationships will require extensive research to be definitive. Sex of Students was significant in determining student score on two types of actors: PERSONAL and ACADEMIC. School Classification was significant in determining the students' score on the factor EXPERIENTIAL while Work Experience was a significant variable in determining the student score on the factor ADULT INFLUENCE. There was also a significant relationship between whether the student had volunteered as a Course Requirement and student score on the factor: ACADEMIC while the Part-time/Full-time variable was significantly related to scores on the factor ADULT INFLUENCE. Students who volunteered in a Program Related to Career Interest scored significantly different on the factors EXPERIENTIAL and COMMUNITY NEED than those who didn't volunteer in a career-related program. Age in Years was one of the two best predictors of a student's score on the Factor: PERSONAL and the other best predictor was Program Related to Career Interests. Previous Volunteer Experience was one of two best predictors of student score on the factor: COMMUNITY NEED. The best predictor variables for the ADULT INFLUENCE factor were Work Experience and Student Status (part-time/full-time). The best predictor variable for the ACADEMIC factor was Course Requirement.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This study concluded that there are at least five major types of reasons in the motivational complex within which university students decide to volunteer in social service. The extremely high responses in the experiential "arena" provide important information for faculty and student development staff who design learning and service programs for this group of adults. All types of experiential learning should be encouraged and developed including internships, externships, paid and volunteer experiences so that maximal integration of theory and practice can be accomplished by each student.

The primary attraction in the volunteer experience appears to be the opportunity to gain work experience in a career field and to learn by doing something outside the classroom. The service motive is still present but apparently not as critical in the decision as the need to work on career related issues. Persons designing, implementing, or teaching adults at this stage should increase the experiential component to increase student learning motivation and career development. Much didactic material in university courses could be marvelously complemented with the addition of an optional or required field experience. This could be offered in most subject areas and would truly broaden a student's total grasp of the content and its application to everyday life situations.

The more creative faculty, staff and students have already been trying to create more integrative learning arrangements but without increasing support and encouragement it is far too easy to respond to classroom ideas as existing only in the classroom. Undergraduate education, especially, has the challenge to make learning viable and provide opportunities for exploration of major courses of study. This difficult process (for students and advisers) can be made more successful if provision for exploration of a potential career field is built into the overall design for undergraduate education! Then each student can test principles and observe job behaviors before or at least during the period when choice of major is made. The other benefit when university students volunteer in area social agencies is that higher education--as reflected by the students performances--is given a better face in the community and diverse groups of persons are aided and assisted, i.e. the client groups served by the social agencies involved. This is probably one of the best methods of improving town/gown relationships yet demonstrated.

Students will continue to learn regardless of how creatively we structure the learning environments; however, the costs of four years in a university make every semester even more crucial in maximizing student growth and development. The time for integrating student classroom learning and lifelong learning through experiential methods is now!

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PSI MEETS ABE

J. Lamarr Cox[1]

Abstract

This paper describes an exploratory study involving the use of the Personalized System of Instruction (PSI) in Adult Basic Education (ABE). The study was conducted to determine whether further investigation of the use of PSI with nontraditional adult learners is likely to be worthwhile, and to identify potentially fruitful areas for such investigation.

The Personalized System of Instruction (PSI) is a self-paced, mastery-oriented system that emphasizes the use of printed instructional materials and peer proctors (lectures generally are reserved for motivational use). PSI has proven to be a successful approach to instructing college students. Such classes have been conducted in hundreds of settings, in dozens of content areas, and in more than 30 countries; reports of program outcomes generally have been exceptionally favorable. However, only minimal research has been done on the effectiveness of PSI with adults in settings other than colleges and universities.

The Research Triangle Institute (RTI), under a contract with the National Institute of Education (NIE), recently developed, implemented, and evaluated a PSI program for nontraditional adult learners.[2] Due to the exploratory nature of the study, no conclusive findings were attempted; rather, the primary objective of the study was to answer the question: "Is further investigation of the use of PSI for nontraditional adult learners likely to be worthwhile?" A secondary objective was to identify potentially fruitful areas for further investigation.

The steps in the research were to:

- Review the literature and current practice of PSI and of adult learning and draw conclusions regarding major factors that should be considered when developing and implementing a PSI program for nontraditional adult learners.
- Develop a PSI program for teaching reading comprehension and mathematics to adult students.
- Implement and evaluate this program with three groups of students.
- Use the collected information to address the research objectives listed above.

The balance of this paper summarizes the more significant results of these four steps.

CONCLUSIONS BASED ON THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND CURRENT PRACTICES

The review of literature and current practice of PSI and of adult learning led to several conclusions and suggestions regarding the suitability of PSI for teaching nontraditional adult learners and for developing and implementing such a program. Following is a summary of the more critical of these.

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[2] For purposes of this report "nontraditional adult learner" is defined as an adult who is studying, usually part-time, in other than the traditional (e.g., college or university) academic setting.

Materials in PSI. The packaged nature of PSI materials appears particularly supportive of the instructional needs of nontraditional adult learners, who typically have varying achievement and capability levels, and needs for alternative study schedules. The packaged, often self-instructional, materials also appear particularly appropriate where teacher availability or capability is a problem.

The high cost of preparing PSI materials tends to limit development of new materials to those situations where extensive use of the materials reduces the per-unit cost to a reasonable amount. PSI, then, appears particularly appropriate for several subpopulations of nontraditional adult learners where large numbers of individuals have common needs (e.g., the need for adult basic education).

Mastery Requirement of PSI. The mastery feature appears capable of offering a "win-win" situation that may be particularly helpful with adult learners, who are often characterized as suffering from being deprived of success and from lack of self-confidence.

Self-Pacing in PSI. Since nontraditional students typically present a wide range of entry behaviors and needs, a PSI program that has no fixed beginning or ending point might be particularly effective. Such a program would permit a student to begin at an appropriate level and progress as far as time, motivation, and ability permitted.

Peer Proctors in PSI. The use of peer proctors would appear to be one of the more promising features of PSI for nontraditional adult learners. The adult learner typically needs: (1) nonthreatening assistance in determining needs; (2) motivation to learn; (3) assistance with learning materials; (4) a sense of belonging or fitting into the learning environment; (5) learning alternatives not inhibited by resentment of authority or unpleasant memories of past schooling; and (6) social interactions. The use of peer proctors appears promising as one method of addressing these needs.

Motivational Lectures in PSI. Since the "motivational lecture" typically has been loosely defined as any supplementary activity not related to the actual delivery of essential instruction, its role could be that of providing social interactions, rewards for accomplishments, or opportunities to meet other unique student needs.

PSI Systems. Suggestions offered in the literature for instruction of nontraditional adult learners were summarized as: (1) adjust to a heterogeneous student body; (2) address the student's need for immediate success; (3) assure that real and perceived student needs are being met; and (4) reduce fear of failure. The total PSI system, as variously described in the literature, appears to provide just such activities.

Identification of Promising Applications. Based upon the review of the literature, two subpopulations appeared to be particularly promising for PSI. The first was noninstitutionalized persons in need of adult basic education (ABE); another was the adults in correctional institutions.

PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

Three ABE classes of a public continuing education institution were selected for implementation of PSI. The selected classes were an on-campus day class, a day class meeting in a housing project, and a prison site. Two similar classes were selected for comparison groups. Each class supposedly had an average enrollment of 10-15 students who met twice each week for 2-hour sessions. The students were stated to be over the age of 18 and to function at between the fourth and eighth grade level in reading and mathematics. The students were predominantly black and approximately 90 percent were female (except in the prison setting where all students were male).

The following sequence of activities was planned for the program.

- Provide training to the classroom managers (the teachers assigned to the PSI classes were intended to serve as classroom managers).
- Provide instruction to proctors.

- Administer placement/assessment instruments.
- Provide students with an introduction to PSI.
- Provide instruction in reading comprehension and mathematics.
- Provide for student demonstration of mastery of each unit of instruction.
- Provide motivational activities.
- Administer end-of-treatment assessment instruments.

The following products were selected or developed for use in the program.

- Classroom manager instructions.
- Proctor instructions. Since the use of internal proctors was planned (i.e., any student who had demonstrated mastery of a particular unit of instruction would be eligible to serve as proctor for that unit), no formal training was designed. A booklet outlining proctor responsibilities and activities was prepared.
- Placement/assessment instruments. The Adult Basic Learning Examination (ABLE) was selected to determine if students had the knowledge necessary for entry into the PSI program, and to provide a measure of achievement gains (Harcourt, Brace & Jovanovich). The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Counselor Recordings & Tests) was selected for pre-treatment and post-treatment assessment of student self-concept.
- Student introduction to PSI. A self-instructional unit was prepared to introduce the students to PSI.
- Instructional materials. Thirty units of reading comprehension instruction were prepared. Twenty-five of these were based on the Steck-Vaughn Adult Reading Program 2100-2800 series (for grades 4-8) (Steck-Vaughn Pub.). Five of the lessons were based on selected portions of Scott, Foresman's adult reading comprehension series (S-F Lifelong Learning Div.). Twenty-five units from Level D of the Individualized Mathematics Program (EDITS Pubs.) were selected for mathematics use.
- Mastery demonstration instruments. At least two mastery demonstration instruments were provided for each unit of instruction. One instrument was included in the instructional package as a practice mastery demonstration to permit the student to ensure mastery before attempting the formal mastery demonstration.
- Motivational activities. Motivational films were selected for presentation. These were to be followed by discussions led by the classroom manager.

A case-study approach was planned to meet the study objectives. While some comparison data were to be collected, the primary emphasis was intended to be upon collection of observational data at the three implementation sites. Classroom observations were intended to be made primarily by the classroom manager; however, the researchers also visited each of the PSI classes at least once a week. The resultant observational data were intended to be summarized by site, and factors pertinent to the research questions highlighted. Plans also were made to collect specific objective data that were considered to be measures of class and individual student progress. However, because of the very small number of classes and students, no generalization of findings was intended. Four specific types of objective data were to be collected: number of units mastered; pre- and post-treatment self-concept measures; pre- and post-treatment achievement measures; and attendance records.

An additional note is that the researchers planned to provide a real-world test for PSI. Rather than create an artificial research setting, every attempt was made to see how PSI would fare within an established system. The intent was to introduce PSI, intervene as little as possible, and observe what happened.

PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION AND RESULTS

Following is a summary of highlights of the program implementation:

- Because of delays in teacher assignments, teacher training was limited to one 30-minute session.
- Because of a last-minute resignation, one teacher was selected who had no previous ABE teaching experience.
- The teacher of the prison class refused to participate. An additional housing project class was selected as a replacement.

- One teacher mistakenly permitted the students to take home the ABLE pretest and obtain outside assistance. The class had to be retested.
- Entry performance level was lower than expected, with about 40 percent of students scoring at below the fourth-grade level. This meant that only 60 percent of the students could participate in the planned program. The balance remained in the classes and received remedial instruction from the teacher and more advanced students.
- One teacher discontinued the PSI approach two-thirds of the way through the 6-month implementation period. The remainder of the time in that class was devoted to teaching the pre-GED test.
- Another teacher resigned midway through the implementation period and was replaced with a teacher with no previous teaching experience.
- One PSI class was disbanded after four months when the cooperating institution discovered that the students also were attending high school. A new class was recruited but disbanded after four weeks because of lack of funds.
- One of the comparison classes was combined with another class midway through the implementation period.

In spite of these teacher-related and institution-related problems, few student-related problems were encountered. The socializing potential of PSI was noted in the close personal contacts among students. The self-pacing feature of the program worked exceptionally well and, after some initial difficulties, the mastery concept appeared to be a positive factor. The idea of students helping students was well received and led to friendly competition and to after-class cooperative study among students.

The results of the 6-month implementation (a total of 88 hours of classroom activities), as reflected by data such as number of instructional units completed, pretest and posttest scores on the ABLE and on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, and student attendance, were as follows.

Twenty-five PSI students mastered a total of 48 language units and 69 mathematics units. With about 10 percent of the mastered units, students indicated that they had received help from a proctor in studying the unit. This percentage does not reflect the full extent of the proctoring activities, however, since much of this effort was directed toward assisting students who had not yet met the entry requirements for the PSI program.

The ABLE tests in reading comprehension, arithmetic computation, and arithmetic problem solving were administered to 36 students near the beginning of their enrollment. The alternate forms of the same tests were administered to 21 students near the end of the implementation period. However, because of dropouts and poor attendance, only 15 students were both pretested and posttested (10 PSI students and 5 comparison group students). While no particular gains were indicated for the comparison students, the PSI students showed average gains of almost one grade level in reading comprehension and more than one grade level in both arithmetic computation and arithmetic problem solving.

Several limitations of these data, other than the obvious one of small sample size, should be noted. First, the test data are for students who were the "survivors"; that is, they were present at the beginning of the implementation period and still present at the end. Also, the academic entry level of the comparison group students was somewhat lower than that of the PSI students; therefore, the two groups of students cannot be said to represent the same population of students.

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was administered to 23 students (15 PSI students and 8 comparison group students) at the beginning of the implementation period and to 21 students (12 PSI and 9 comparison group students) at the end of the period. As expected, the students' self-concepts were low with the average score being at about the 30th percentile. Both pre- and post-treatment data were obtained for seven PSI students and five comparison group students. A slight increase in self-concept was indicated for the PSI students, and a slight decrease was indicated for the comparison group students.

The average student attendance for the combined PSI classes for both quarters was 71 percent, as compared to an average student attendance for the combined comparison groups for both quarters of 69 percent. The student dropout rate was computed for all students enrolled in the three PSI classes and the two comparison classes during the first month of the first quarter. Of a total of 24 such students in the PSI classes, 21 percent dropped out before the end of the second quarter. The dropout rate for the seven similarly enrolled comparison class students was 57 percent.

CONCLUSIONS

The implementation activities and results indicate that PSI may have the potential for effective teaching of nontraditional adult learners. In the implemented program, the students did learn. They were enthusiastic about the program, and they readily adapted to the idea of students helping students. The answer to the research question regarding whether or not further investigation of the use of PSI for nontraditional adult learners is likely to be worthwhile is an emphatic "yes." PSI appears to hold considerable promise for combining sound educational principles and practices into a program for addressing needs such as those for adult basic education.

The research activities not only indicated a potential role for PSI in teaching nontraditional adult learners, but also indicate a need for further research to define that role. A list of potentially fruitful areas of related research was prepared. This list may be summarized by noting that primary concerns had to do with:

- Availability (or unavailability) of appropriate self-paced instructional materials.
- The potential role of packaged instruction other than printed materials.
- The relative advantages of internal proctors (i.e., proctors who also are students in the class) vs. external proctors (i.e., proctors who are not students in the class).
- The legitimate role of the teacher in PSI, and how the role might be enhanced so as to meet the teachers' personal and professional needs.

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CONSTRAINTS TO COMMUNAL PRODUCTION AND THE EFFECTS OF A PARTICIPATORY EXTENSION APPROACH

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Abstract

An experiment was conducted to determine obstacles to communal production and test a participatory agricultural extension approach. Sixteen villages in Tanzania were assisted to plan and implement small agricultural projects. Farmers proved interested and able to participate. Projects planned differed significantly from those traditionally planned for villages. Major factors influencing project success were the supply and marketing system, village leadership, and the incentive structure. The participatory approach proved more effective and should be encouraged.

Experience in Tanzania and many other developing countries shows that agricultural development projects often fail. A number of reasons have been suggested. Projects are often planned in a very bureaucratic top-down fashion and sort of imposed on the target population (Neff, 1976, p.4). As a result many projects have been based on new agricultural practices which were technically, economically or socially unsound (Lele, 1975, p. 62). The target group may also have little commitment or even be against project implementation. Even when plans are sound and the peasants have been involved in planning, problems may occur during implementation. Supporting services may prove inadequate or again they may be offered in a top-down, paternalistic fashion (Roling, 1980, p. 29). As a result projects often fail to become self-sustaining. This study examined the contraints to the establishment of communal production projects and tested the use of a dialogical (participatory) extension approach to the planning and implementation of such projects.

The experimental dialogical approach was based on Paulo Freire's (1970) theory of liberating education. The essence of this approach is dialogue which we (De Vries, 1980) defined as the horizontal sharing of ideas between teachers/learners and learners/teachers in a process of reflecting and acting on the world in order to understand and control it. In this case the peasants' situation in terms of agriculture and the constraints to communal production was the focus of our dialogue. Aside from our research and training objectives, the underlying aim was to increase the peasants' understanding of their situation and to improve their productivity and welfare.

In practice this meant a series of meetings with different groups (women, youth, men) of village members to reflect on their situation and evolve plans for small communal production projects. Initially these discussions involved a wide cross-section of the village members. As time went on and plans became more definite they involved existing committees, e.g., the finance and planning committee, and any available government extension workers. At the implementation stage the process involved both discussion with leaders to reflect on progress and problems and working with them and other villagers to implement decisions.

The study was conducted over three years in Morogoro district, Tanzania as part of the extension work of the Faculty of Agriculture of the University of Dar Es Salaam. A quasi-experimental design was used to allow observation at both the planning and implementation stages. Eight matched pairs of villages were selected for the experiment on the basis of a broad baseline survey of over 40 villages, and randomly assigned to two experimental groups. Peasants in the T1 group of villages were through a participatory approach helped to plan projects and provided with the necessary outside funds or materials to implement them. Village leaders and government employed extension workers were then left to implement these projects on their own to allow observation of their capacity to implement "good" projects. Farmers in the T2 group were in addition to the help provided T1 villages assisted to implement projects again using a dialogical approach. Success in establishing projects in both groups of villages was then compared to success of those organized in the traditional way by the government extension service.

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One of the aims of the study was to provide practical training for students in extension, and final year B. Sc. (Agriculture) students therefore acted as the university's extension agents. Project success was measured progressively by four indicators: (1) whether projects were in fact implemented, (2) evidence of a positive benefit/cost ratio, (3) financial returns large enough to maintain the project on a self-sustaining basis beyond the initial period, and (4) a favorable attitude toward the project by village participants.

Success of projects in the experimental program has been mixed up to this time. Out of the total of 16 small agricultural production projects planned, 14 were implemented but planned size and production levels were in most cases not achieved. Of the 14 implemented, 4 have achieved a positive benefit/cost ratio and have become self-sustaining. One project has already been abandoned and one other is failing financially. Five other projects incurred serious losses during the first cropping season due to drought but are being continued. Three projects are still in the investment stage and returns for them can therefore not be estimated. Villagers have shown a favorable attitude towards most of the projects which are still functioning. While success has been limited, performance has been better than for most government projects.

Project success was found to be influenced by a variety of factors including many beyond the control of the experimental program such as weather, price changes, government policy, and village leadership. The program showed that the peasants were very interested in and able to participate in project planning through a discussion type approach. One of the most significant outcomes of the program is perhaps the educational effect on agricultural students who are the country's future extension administrators and agricultural policy makers. Students were surprised at the farmers' knowledge and for the first time experienced the effectiveness of a participatory approach. Many who had been very sceptical before their involvement became convinced of the feasability and value of such an approach. Although women are officially members of equal status in the villages, and their involvement was encouraged, they participated much less in decision-making than men (Oomen-Myin, 1981, P. 99). Women were generally much busier then men as they not only had to care for the children and prepare food including hauling water and firewood, but also do most of the agricultural work. The traditional attitude that the woman's sphere of activities is restricted to the home while the man is to interact in the public domain also still had a strong influence.

The types of projects planned using the dialogical approach differed significantly from those traditionally planned for villages. Participants emphasized projects which demanded relatively little labor and gave a high return per unit of labor. Government projects on the other hand have focused on export or industry oriented "cash" crops and high return per unit of labor. Participants also favored crops/produce which could be marketed or consumed in various ways while the extension service primarily promoted crops, soybeans, which people could not consume directly. The result was in fact a series of projects specifically tailored to the unique conditions of each village. Government projects were on the other hand often based on broad "blanket" recommendations and uniform for all villages in an area.

Meaningful participation in the planning process also resulted in greater commitment by villagers to project implementation and greater confidence in their own knowledge and ability to plan in cooperation with others. The greater quality of project plans evolved through dialogue as compared through the traditional system was a major factor in ensuring project success. The assistance given in terms of planning projects and obtaining funds and materials to implement them also had a much greater impact on project success than assistance with the implementation process.

A purely dialogical approach to project implementation proved difficult to achieve due to the normal activities of government extension workers and other government officials. For example shortly after projects were planned the government issued a directive that all villages in one area must grow one acre of cotton per family on a communal basis. None of the villages had in fact chosen to do so and most eventually made only a token effort to comply.

As noted above, project success has been mixed even with the use of a dialogical approach. One critical factor in project success was found to be the incentive structure built into projects. As villagers generally preferred private to communal production, they needed a clear incentive to contribute their labor. One way to avoid this problem was to plan projects such as a fish pond which did not demand much labor. In other projects mechanization was used to overcome this constraint. Nevertheless, most projects demanded substantial labor contributions from village members. In most of the villages it was decided that any profits from their project would be used to improve village facilities or to expand communal production. This constituted an indirect and egalitarian incentive system as benefits would come in the form of improved services shared more or less equally by all members regardless of their labor contribution (Putterman, 1980). Each member was therefore expected to contribute equally and emphasis was put on controls such as group pressure and fines to ensure participation. Even so, work attendance was often very poor and resulted in expensive delays or in reduced acreages. Where work was assigned to small groups on a task basis, a practice which was becoming increasingly popular, attendance improved. Promises of a share of the profits at the end of the season for those who work had little effect. Members seemed to regard this as mere rhetoric, having never received such payments in the past.

In a number of villages monetary incentives were offered in the form of advances paid on the completion of a certain task. This constituted a direct and differential incentive system as the person was paid immediately after working and only those who worked were paid. This system placed most of the risk of failure due to weather, poor participation, poor planning, etc., on the project instead of the individual. People were therefore much readier to divert their labor from private to communal production. This proved to be the only way to ensure the participation of the poorest farmers as they usually had to work for the richer farmers at this time of the year to earn food or cash to buy it. Many poorer farmers were in fact caught in a kind of vicious cycle, needing to sell their labor in order to feed themselves and their families during the critical planting and weeding periods and as a result not being able to produce enough food to feed themselves next season. Our experience thus confirmed the findings of Barker (1979) and McHenry (1977) that incentives are crucial, particularly at the initial stages of developing communal production and where such production competes directly with private production for labor.

Village leadership was also found to play a crucial role in project implementation. No amount of external assistance could substitute for good local leadership. Research (De Vries 1978, Von Freyhold, 1979) shows that wealthier peasants are often elected to leadership positions even though they may not be very interested in the development of communal production and ownership which as noted in the case of hiring labor, often works to their disadvantage. While good leadership for communal production can to an extent only be identified and developed in the process of communalizing production, in a number of villages it seemed that they were deliberately chosen for their lack of interest. As the interest in communal production was generally low, many people just wanted to be left alone to get on with their private activities.

The village dialogue also revealed that while participants felt satisfaction at being involved in decision-making, they at the same time sought a sort of patron-client type relationship between their village and the university. While the university encouraged horizontal interaction and tried to avoid a dependency relationship, village members sought a friend who would not only discuss problems with them but also take up their interests with unresponsive government officials or suppliers of inputs and thus be at their side in the implementation of decisions evolving out of the dialogue. As we confronted problems together, peasants became increasingly aware that the most significant constraints to both communal and private production were not a lack of knowledge or skills but their lack of power and access to production resources. They therefore would not accept the university in the role of a sort of "neutral" technical advisor usually assumed by extension. It in fact became clear that village leaders valued the university's assistance in terms of finances and obtaining hard to get materials and services more than any technical advice we offered.

The words participation and involvement are so widely used in education as to be almost meaningless. This experiment showed that a genuinely participatory (dialogical) approach is more effective than the commonly used top-down approach in promoting communal production. A dialogical approach includes not only open discussion on the basis of trust and equality, but also action to put mutual decisions into practice. While such an approach can be justified on economic grounds, perhaps more importantly it resulted in a deeper awareness by both the extension agents (students) and the farmers of the crucial role power and access to resources play in agricultural development. These are often more important to the development of small farmers individually or in groups than a lack of technical knowledge or farming related skills. Rather than assuming a neutral role which usually means supporting the status quo, educators including extension agents must seek ways of being with the powerless in their struggle for empowerment and development. A dialogical approach is one way to achieve this.

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ART AND DESIGN PROGRAMS FOR AGING:
ARE THEY REALLY LEARNING EXPERIENCES?

J.H. Dohr[1]

Abstract

This paper addresses philosophical questions of (1) how and what older adults come to know when involved in art and design programs and (2) the value of arts programs to older participants. A goodness of fit is sought between psychological theories on the nature of aging, educational philosophies, program development, and concepts of aesthetics. The paper concludes with a discussion of the previous philosophical perspective applied to an on-going program, Creative Arts over 60.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to address two major philosophical concerns regarding art and design programs for aging. Epistomological questions surround what and how older adults come to know when in art and design programs. The axiological question--what is the value of such programs--is the second consideration. In exploring the philosophical bases and the questions for offering arts programs, a combination of three different areas of study are used to achieve a 'goodness of fit'. First, a review of the psychological theories on aging is introduced and a comparison of descriptors regarding later adulthood is made. Secondly, educational philosophies and program development orientation are considered which most closely match the nature of aging. Then literature and frameworks from aesthetics are introduced which further clarify qualities and knowledge that are discovered and achieved in the arts. The paper concludes by illustrating the philosophical perspective applied to an on-going case, Creative Arts over 60.

Before beginning the major discussion, the context, assumptions, and meaning of the terms used need to be presented. Programs for aging are described as series of learning experiences that make knowledge available to adults in community senior centers, in nursing homes, and through outreach programs. It is not assumed that these programs are the only mechanisms or systems for learning. Rather, given the situation of programming in these settings, the question of educational meaning must be considered and is assumed present. Some individuals choose not to differentiate between educational purposes and other purposes in programs for aging; but for this paper, the examination is essential.

Art and design encompasses content areas of drawing, painting, basic design and color, fiber arts, music, creative writing, poetry, dance, and dramatics. Both the artistic creation and aesthetic appreciation of art forms are included. Creative Arts over 60 is a non-profit corporation that does arts programming in ten community centers, two nursing homes, and through an outreach network for home-bound adults. The program covers a county wide area in Southern Wisconsin. It also arranges and hangs exhibits, organizes regional workshops, and has published a book of participants' creative writings.

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CONSIDERATIONS OF THREE COMPONENTS

Psychological Theories of Aging

To consider the nature of aging, one needs to understand personality development over the lifespan, not just the aged. Changes in lifestyle, stages that bring renewal and exploration both in a mental and a physical sense, and assessment of one's values are on-going phenomena of life. The works of Erikson (1963), Jung (in Bischof, 1964, 1976), Havighurst (1953, 1973), Maslow (1954, 1962, 1971), Buhler (1961, 1968), and Bischof (1976) provide psychological theories of the aging process. Each theory presents, to various degrees, models of motivations, polarities, tasks, forces, ego stages, and/or basic virtues that one seeks to bring into balance throughout life.

Of specific interest in later adulthood are the meanings and the interpretations attributed to this age. As Bischof (1976) discussed, both Jung and Maslow find personality development culminating in self-actualization--the balance, understanding, and ability to deal productively with one's own personality, capabilities, and life situation. Erikson (1963) describes later adulthood as full maturity with renunciation and wisdom emerging. Buhler (1972) identifies later adulthood as the acknowledgement of a degree of fulfillment. One's self development, activities, and personal relationships appear to be continually significant. An extensive discussion and comparison of the theories are not possible in the space allotted, but an apparent, underlying commonality of older adults is characterized as self-fulfillment. The ability to expand creatively, a consistency between one's inner self and external behavior, or stated as the sense of wholeness in one's life appears a dominant descriptor of the stage.

Philosophies of Education

If psychological theories give us an understanding of the older adult, what do educational frameworks contribute to questions posed on what the older adult comes to know in educational programs? Eisner and Vallence (1974) discussed five educational orientations that emerged from alternative views of content, goals and organization of the curriculum. The five orientations were curriculum as technology, curriculum as self-actualization or consummatory experience, curriculum as academic rationalism, curriculum as development of cognitive processes, and curriculum as social reconstruction. Philosophies of progressivism, existentialism, perennialism, essentialism, and reconstructionism, presented by Apps (1973), parallel these views of curriculum. For example, essentialism subscribes to a traditional approach to education with content selected from the classics, history, mathematics and the natural sciences. This approach is viewed in curriculum as academic rationalism or liberal education.

If we reflect on the actualized nature of older adults, as previously discussed, then a curriculum approach of self-actualization or consummatory experience and an existential basis of education becomes more meaningful. Subscription to education as returning to the three R's, disciplining the mind, solving society's problems, vocational training, or perpetuating past culture, in the pure sense, do not quite fit the nature or needs of the older adult learner. One could argue that portions of these reasons are or should be represented in educational programs for the aging. However, the fact remains that if one follows and uses a philosophical basis for education programs with the older population, then the view "that education should be directed toward individual self-fulfillment," (Apps, 1973, p. 23) offers a better match. Kneller stated, "Let education exist for the individual. Let it teach him to live as his own nature bids him, spontaneously and authentically" (in Apps, 1973, p. 23). In continuing the argument, Eisner's explanation provides further support. "It (curriculum as self-actualization) conceptualizes education as a liberating force, a means of helping the individual discover things for himself." (Eisner & Vallence, 1974, p. 9)

AESTHETIC FRAMEWORK

Having reasoned that a 'self-actualized' approach to programming for older adults better fits the nature of their life stage, further questions surround what content and activity reinforce the experiences needed. Bronowski (1971) held that we come to know in two ways. One way is the machine man which is representative of scientific inquiry and theory building. The other way of coming to know life is what Bronowski calls 'self'. This type of knowing is discovered in the aesthetic. It is a way of experiencing the whole of life with its meaning, the dichotomies, the beauty, the pleasure and sadness at once. It is the contemplation of form, the withholding of judgement, and gaining insight for oneself through the experience. Rader and Jessup (1976) wrote that aesthetic value is the transaction and combination of the objective qualities found in a form and the subjective interest of the observer/creator. It is seeing beauty and the uncommon in one's common experience of life. Yanagi (1978) discussed the transcending nature of the aesthetic, of losing oneself in a greater knowledge and seeing of beauty. There is a sense of order, a form in both a discursive and presentational sense. Weitz presented reasons for the aesthetic in expressive and emotional realms. These concepts speak to what Keats described as the dilema in life of wanting to leave something of value and of oneself while at the same time wanting to enjoy and to appreciate the simple pleasures of everyday existence. Such thoughts appear to be similar in meaning to those stated in the psychological theories of aging and the existential philosophy of education. The arts, through creating and appreciating forms, whether words, ideas, music, visual images, or movement, have qualities that provide opportunities for the older adult to fulfill both these needs.

ILLUSTRATION OF CASE IN POINT

The original philosophical questions and further discussion can best be illustrated by Creative Arts over 60. This program was designed for older adults with the realization of the nature and need for creative, self-actualization in their lives. Practicing artists in writing, visual arts, music, dance, and drama were selected as instructors. The programmers, site coordinators, and instructor/artist view the program as a joint creation with the older adults and attuned to their interest in creative arts. An existential philosophy of artist and participant discovering together the older adult's perceptions, and the understanding that their feelings have value and are worthy of expression are present.

A scenario of a creative writing class exemplies the practical implications. The writing class of artist/instructor and twelve older adults meets in sessions for eight weeks. Each session lasts for two hours. The members have diverse backgrounds and different interests in writing--but according to the artist this doesn't seem to matter. Some participants have developed from never having written before to publishing and pursuing markets. Other members approach the weekly lessons with personal goals of fun and appreciation for "our girl who did it".

Each class session begins with a short warm-up exercise on potentially viable material, such as a writing on home objects (potato, coin purse, etc.) that the artist collects for class. In this exercise each class member is directed to reduce their original writing four times in order to gain essential ideas. One member said that was the first time she had to continually refocus her material. After the warm-up exercise, previous weeks' assignments are read and critiqued. Following the readings, resource material of recognized writers, listening to dialogue, and coming to knowing resources for writing might be discussed.

Another example exercise dealt with writing about one's body parts. This exercise took more time and was a more sensitive subject because it dealt with each person's own development. One 89 year-old gentleman wrote on his complaining right side. He walks four miles a day, no matter what the weather, and wrote a dialogue between the problems of his right side and the needs of his whole being. Humor, the aging process and vulnerable parts, and caring were characteristically represented in the writings.

When asked what learning occurs, examples of responses by participants, artists/ instructors, and site coordinators were as follows:

- a conscious understanding of the arts and its form - as one 98 year-old woman said to the musician after hearing a symphony played, "now how many times did that theme reoccur?"
- a comfort with and support for interest in subject matter--some said this interest had been descirbed as "quirks". One member's family always thought that she was funny because she liked to read books.
- a sense of autonomy
- a discovery and the learning to see and to appreciate common forms or life experiences as artistic stimulation
- a competition with themselves as they want to get better and better
- an ability to read more knowingly and more critically
- a consciousness and an understanding of exotic things in their life which they never before expressed

Values of the arts programs for older adults appear to be two-sided. One value is felt by the older adult participant, and the other value by the community and recipients of the learners' concrete expressions. Social value of group meetings is apparent. The appreciation expressed by the older adult's family is another important value cited. Intrinsic values such as appreciation of self, enthusiasm, and simple enjoyment are apparent. An objective knowledge of the unity and the structure of art forms is also present. Further development related to exposure of new experiences are additional values mentioned.

A poem in Echoes from Mount & Plain (1981 p. 1) by Beulah Uren (a participant in Creative Arts over 60 and a new writer) summarizes the what, how, and why one comes to know in the arts:

SIMPLE THINGS

There are so many things to write!
No matter where I look,
everything is speaking words
to write down in a book.

A dripping faucet has a tale,
the clock that ticks,
a gallon pail,
a pile of rocks,
a snowy day,
a pretty glass,
a child at play.

Horses pulling heavy loads,
a herd of cows,
the frogs, the toads,
dandelions,
the farmers's wife,
a worn shoe,
a pocket knife,
a broken dish,
a fork, a spoon,
an old oak tree,
the golden moon.

There are so many things in sight
to keep me thinking day and night,
enough to last me all my life,
that I must write and write and write!

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COMMUNITY-BASED LEARNING AND SERVICE:
A UNIQUE PARTNERSHIP BETWEEN SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

Janice Earle[1]

Abstract

The paper describes the structure and results of a pilot program initiated by the Maryland State Department of Education. The program's goal was to provide opportunities for community-based learning and service as part of the instructional program in two comprehensive high schools.

The Community-Based Learning and Service program (CBLS) was designed and initiated by the Maryland State Department of Education (MSDE) in April 1979. The purpose of the program was to determine the feasibility of providing large numbers of high school students in two schools with opportunities to learn about and serve their communities.

Because of their demonstrated effectiveness, MSDE has developed a commitment to out-of-school learning experiences. Conrad and Hedin (1980) for example, maintain that experiential programs positively affect the social, physchological, and intellectual development of youth. According to Crow and Harvey (1979), students in experiential as opposed to traditional learning environments were forced to use or generate constructs in an applied setting. If students were able to assimilate this with previous learning, performance on standardized tests would increase. In an effort to assess the long-term effects of community service programs, Beane et al (1981) concluded that adults who participated in community service projects in high school demonstrated higher levels of community involvement than adults who did not engage in such projects.

CBLS has built on this commitment by expanding the concept of building skills and life competencies through community experiences. The program has three components--experiential learning, community service and career exploration. CBLS continues to focus on these three components through the two pilot high school programs in Maryland--one urban and one rural. The MSDE agreed to fund the program for three years providing that pilot schools aimed at serving 50 percent of each school's population by its third year. In addition to funding, the MSDE also provided a program specialist to work with the program at the state level and provide technical assistance to pilot schools.

In order to evaluate the program, data were collected in May of 1981, at the end of the second year of operation (school year 1980-81). A final evaluation will be conducted with data collected in May of 1982. The evaluation was designed to answer the following four questions:

1. How is the program being implemented at the two schools?
2. What types of impacts does the program have on students, schools and communities?
3. What are the costs in implementing the CBLS program?
4. What are the critical factors in the program affecting replicability?

IMPLEMENTATION

To analyze implementation, a process monitoring instrument was developed and information was collected twice during the school year 1980-81. During the year, approximately 585 students participated in the rural site and 625 students participated in the urban site. Both rural and urban sites came very close to having 50 percent of their students in the program. Two full-time program coordinators at each site developed procedures for recruiting and placing students at a variety of community sites. Students chose sites on the basis of possible career interest or a desire to provide service. While at the site, students were under the supervision of a site sponsor. Most students participated at site placements one day per week for 10-12 weeks. Student orientation sessions and seminars were also held during the semester. Options exist at both schools for shorter term site placements also.

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Between 88 and 90 percent of the students completed their commitment to the CBLS program. The attrition rate of site sponsors was negligable.

Students at both schools were required to complete learning activities related to their site placements. At the rural site students completed Learning Activity Packets (LAPS). These were submitted to the program's coordinators at the end of the semester, and if satisfactorily completed, students were awarded ½ credit. At the urban site, students negotiated a learning contract with an individual teacher and submitted a finished product to that teacher at the end of the site placement.

At both pilot schools, the program operated on a pull-out basis. Students were required to make up the classwork they missed while at their site placements. The pull-out nature of the program caused disruption of regular classroom activities in both schools. Program coordinators needed to work diligently and closely with the school faculty to provide them techniques for presenting information to a changing number of students, and to involve them in the program by writing instructional materials, developing sites, and monitoring student placements. Strong administrative support by the building principal was also required in both schools because of the nature and size of the program.

Areas of concern regarding the program's operation include the following:

- An inability thus far to integrate the program into the schedule at either school;
- The difficulty of monitoring large numbers of students
- Maintaining faculty support so that CBLS experiences are integrated into the school's program.

PROGRAM IMPACT

To determine program impact, over 100 interviews were conducted with site sponsors, teachers, school administrators and students. In addition, two instruments were developed to measure program impact on students. The first, a Student Attitude Survey, was designed to determine changes in student self-concept and community awareness which might be affected by participation in CBLS. The Student Attitude Survey results had no program implications, since the survey was only given at one point in time. During the 1981-82 school year, the survey will be administered as a pretest and posttest.

The Student Feedback Survey was intended to collect student reactions to the program after they participated. This survey has both program and instrumentation implications. Students were asked to rate statements regarding their community experience on a scale of 1 to 5 with items rating 5 being statements with which students "strongly agree." High scoring items referred to having adult responsibilities, an opportunity to do interesting things, doing instead of observing, clarity of directions, discussing experiences with family and friends, receiving help when it was needed, being appreciated , and feeling a sense of contribution. These aspects of the program were most highly regarded by students. Low scoring items included having an opportunity to make important decisions, discussing experiences with teachers, and applying community learning in school. These may represent items which could be strengthened.

The high scoring items in the Student Feedback Survey correspond to those that site sponsors and teachers reported in interviews as student benefits. These included gains in personal development, a chance to learn "real world" skills, and an opportunity for students to be treated like adults. Teachers reported, like students, that they do not always relate student site experiences back to the classroom.

Both schools perceived an improvement in school-community relations. The program has provided opportunities for site sponsors to participate in the education of young people. Sponsors reported that they enjoyed the experience and appreciated the very real help that the students brought to their organizations. Both schools reported that community site sponsors were extremely supportive, and on occasion offered to provide orientation activities at the school for students before they attended their sites.

Site sponsors reported that students engaged in a wide variety of activities while at their sites. Many worked with elementary children, tutoring or teaching mini-courses. Large numbers were placed in hospitals or nursing homes. Some students worked with local, state, or federal government agencies. Others were involved in unique projects, such as a group of students who conducted an oral history project for a local community college. A few were permitted access to sophisticated and expensive equipment in scientific laboratories.

Regardless of the activities in which students were engaged, sponsors saw student growth in site specific skills, good work habits, responsibility, interpersonal skills, and increased community awareness.

The evaluation design included procedures to determine whether school attendance was affected by the program. Evaluation results indicated that improved school attendance could be considered a positive outcome of CBLS.

In the rural site, student attendance during the year was compared to their past attendance record in a historical assessment of attendance patterns. Attendance of current 11th grade students in the program was compared to their attendance as 10th graders, before entering the program. The average number of days absent decreased from 17.80 to 13.62, a decrease of almost 30 percent. This improvement was statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level. However, during this same time period, the administration concentrated on improving school attendance in general. Therefore, it's not possible to precisely determine how much of this change in attendance was due to CBLS program participation.

At the urban site, approximately 10 percent of the school's non-participating students were randomly selected within grade and sex strata and compared with CBLS students for attendance during the 1980-81 school year. The average days absent for the CBLS group was 28.61 as compared to 36.36 for non-participating students. This difference was statistically significant at the $p < .02$ level. Finding significant trends at both schools suggests that the program may be having some influence on attendance. A similar analysis will be undertaken during the 1981-82 school year.

PROGRAM COST

The CBLS program was offered for less than $200 per student during the school year 1980-81. This figure included the development of instructional materials, student transportation, faculty inservice programs, CBLS staff development, and salaries. In addition to funding received from the state, local districts contributed the necessary physical facilities and certain other expenses, such as equipment.

PROGRAM REPLICATION

At this point, a variety of factors seem critical to the replication of any CBLS program. They include:

- The critical importance of state support, not just in terms of funding, but in active technical assistance as well;
- The critical importance of administrative support at the school building level. If the program is not a school priority, it won't survive;
- The active involvement of school faculty. The program should be seen as a resource to teachers;
- A well designed system for recruiting and orienting community site sponsors;
- The existence of qualified CBLS staff at the school level. It is estimated that with active faculty support, 200 to 250 students can be served for each professional staff member.
- A mix of activities for students, including orientation, site placement, learning activities, counseling and monitoring. One full day at the site for students for a period of 10-12 weeks seems to work best. Where possible, site experience should be approached developmentally, with group exposure first, followed by individual placement.

In conclusion, the CBLS program demonstrated that it is possible to provide a program involving close to 50 percent of the students in a local school in community learning and service. Questions for further analysis then become:

1. Can it be institutionalized as part of the regular school offering?
2. Can it be disseminated to other districts?
3. Can it be incorporated into the state educational system?

The answers to these questions will take more time.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SELF-REPORT SCALE TO MEASURE STRESS AROUSAL IN ADULTS

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Abstract

This paper reports the rationale and developmental data for a self-report scale to measure stress arousal. The information presented is designed to clarify the measurement dilemma surrounding stress arousal and to offer the first practical measure scale of chronic stress arousal.

Reviews by Cassel(1974), Selye(1976) and Henry and Stephens(1977) strongly implicate excessive stress arousal as a contributing factor in a host of psychological disorders. Similarly, excessive stress is said to contribute to vocational dissatisfaction and dysfunction, as well(Selye, 1976;Cooper and Payne, 1978). It seems to be generally accepted that the potential roles stress plays in human health and performance warrant systematic inquiry. Such efforts have clearly been hindered by methodological problems, however. These problems center on the lack of agreement on how to measure the variable of interest, i.e., stress. Within this paper we shall offer one potential solution to this measurement dilemma.

A DEFINITION OF STRESS

Cattell and Scheier(1961) argue that systematic inquiry is based upon some form of measurement. Furthermore, Spielberger(1975) concludes that the "development of measurement procedures should be guided by a precise conceptual definition of the dimensions or variables that are to be measured..."(p. 716). Unfortunately, this fundamental psychometric principle has been generally ignored in the measurement of stress arousal and a predictable quagmire of conflicting data in stress research has resulted.

In order to avoid making a similar error we shall offer a working definition of stress arousal which will be utilized within the context of this paper. Stress may be viewed from a biobehavioral perspective as a multi-faceted psychophysiological mechanism of mediation(i.e., a psychophysiologic medium to bring about a result) characterized by hypermetabolic properties. This theme of a hypermetabolic nature is clearly reflected in the term chosen by Nobel laureate Hess(1957) to describe one aspect of stress arousal--the"ergotropic response"("ergos" meaning work). To more clearly understand what stress is and what it is not, we must examine the global process involved in the elicitation of the stress response itself.

It is generally agreed by biobehavioral researchers that stress arousal is largely initiated by specific cognitive interpretations and affective reactions on the part of the individual(Cassel, 1974;Meichenbaum, 1975;Selye, 1976;Everly and Rosenfeld, 1981). The stress response appears to discretely arise from the diencephalic level of the human brain (see Henry and Stephens, 1977;see also Everly and Rosenfeld, 1981 for reviews). The diencephalon is thought to receive afferent impulses from the prefrontal and cingulate gyri (Weil, 1974;Gevarter, 1978;Wolf, 1981). This would strongly suggest that the diencephalon

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is vulnerable to cognitive and affective input. In most cases, therefore, the elicitation of the stress response is predicated upon the individual's cognitive/affective appraisal of his/her environment(Lazurus, 1966;Cassel, 1974;Meichenbaum, 1975;Selye, 1976; Everly and Rosenfeld, 1981;Wolf, 1981).

The environment(which contains potential stress producing stimuli called stressors) and the cognitive/affective domain are necessary conditions for the elicitation of the stress response, but they do not constitute the actual physiological mechanism inherent in the stress response itself. The physiological components of the stress response itself may be classified into three major functionally discrete axes: the neural, the neuroendocrine and the endocrine. While these mechanisms are far from clearly understood, some insight into their workings does exist.

The neural axis consists primarily of the sympathetic branch of the autonomic nervous system. Some parasympathetic activation may be noted as well. The effect of activation of this neural axis is thought to be an immediate generalized arousal of the ergotropic system (Hess, 1957).

The role of the neuroendocrine system appears to be to continue the arousal of the neural axis by way of the adrenal medullary hormones--epinephrine and norepinephrine. This response was first described by Cannon(1914) and is commonly known as the "fight or flight" response.

Finally, the endocrine system may become involved in the stress response, as well. Selye(1956) first coherently described the roles of the anterior pituitary, adrenal cortex, and thyroid endocrine glands in the stress response. His formulation of the General Adaptation Syndrome largely describes the functions of the glucocorticoid and mineralocorticoid hormones in the stress response(see Everly and Rosenfeld, 1981 for a more elaborate discussion of stress psychophysiology).

Thus we see that the stress response itself actually consists of three potentially discrete components or axes: the neural axis, the neuroendocrine axis, and the endocrine axis.

Although we have identified the basic physiological components of the stress response itself, one final consideration of the more global response process needs to be examined--the "end-organ" effects of stress. "End-organ" is a term applied to the psychological, behavioral, or physiological effects which might result from psychophysiologic stress arousal. Such effects might include depression, anxiety, alcoholism, or any of the so-called "psychosomatic" diseases, to mention only a few.

We can see then that the stress response itself consists of the aforementioned physiological axes. We must quickly point out, however, the intimate interactions of the stimulus (stressor) environment, the cognitive/affective domain, and the end-organ effects with the physiological stress response itself. In fact, it is this intimacy that leads some investigators to confuse the physiological axes of stress with its precipitating stressors, the cognitive/affective reactions to those stressors, or the actual end-organ results of stress arousal.

A MEASUREMENT PARADIGM

To fully understand stress it seems important to consider the more global response process. This global process includes 1)the stressor environment, 2)the cognitive/affective appraisals of the environment, 3)the stress response itself(the physiological axes), and finally 4)the end-organ effects of stress arousal. Thus we see four potentially discrete stages in the global stress process. Not only do these stages help clarify what stress actually is, but they may serve as a model for understanding the measurement dilemma which surrounds the stress response. From an analysis of these stages we see the emergence of a measurement paradigm consisting of four discrete measurement points: 1)the stressor environment, 2)the cognitive/affective domain, 3)the physiological axes, and 4)the psychological, behavioral, or medical end-organ effects.

A SCALE TO MEASURE STRESS

As mentioned earlier, the global stress process can be said to consist of four potentially discrete measurement points. Everly and Newman (in press) argue that the most practical measurement point resides in the cognitive/affective domain. It is this component of the global stress response process which most highly correlates with the physiological stress axes(see also Lachman, 1972 and Everly and Rosenfeld, 1981 for reviews) while at the same time providing a practical measurement system. The present research effort was initiated by the first author in February of 1976 at the University of Maryland's (College Park) Psychophysiology and Biofeedback Research Laboratory, then under the direction of Dr. Daniel Girdano. The results reported in this paper pertain to the development of a subjective, self-report scale for the measurement of the cognitive/affective domain as a precipitator of the physiological stress axes; in effect a practical scale to measure chronic stress arousal. The Everly Behavioral Survey (EBS) is a 40-item self-report scale. Respondents are asked to indicate how often they generally experience each of the 40 cognitive/affective conditions. Respondents are asked to select from four response options: SELDOM OR NEVER; SOMETIMES; OFTEN; or ALMOST ALWAYS for each of the 40 items.

AN EARLIER FORM OF THE EBS

The E-WGBS is the 30-item predecessor of the EBS. The E-WGBS was shown to be reliable and valid with small selected samples(Everly and Newman, in press). One week test-retest reliability for the E-WGBS was .926 and .956 for a group of 20 working adults and 42 undergraduate students respectively. The two week test-retest reliability was .930 for 26 graduate business students. Regarding validity, the E-WGBS demonstrated convergent construct validity by correlating with the trait anxiety form of the STAI(Spielberger, et al., 1970) with a strength of .78 ($p<.01$) for 20 light industrial workers and .875 ($p<.01$) for 24 adult undergraduate students. The correlation between the E-WGBS and the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (TMAS)(Taylor, 1953) was .80 ($p<.01$) for the same 24 adult undergraduate students, and .708 ($p<.01$) for 30 young adult undergraduate students. Divergent construct validity was demonstrated in the light industrial group when the correlation between the E-WGBS and the Paranoid Ideation and Psychoticism subscales of the SCL-90(R) (Derogatis, 1977) was found to be .278 ($p>.05$) and .268 ($p>.05$), respectively. Concurrent criterion validity of the E-WGBS was demonstrated through the contrasted groups method. The E-WGBS was able to discriminate between patients diagnosed with "psychophysiologic disorders" versus non-clinical subjects in two independent efforts(see Everly and Newman, in press).

THE EVERLY BEHAVIORAL SURVEY (EBS)

Concurrent validity for the EBS is indicated by the .853 ($p<.01$) and the .699 ($p<.01$) correlations between the EBS and the TMAS for 30 adult undergraduate students (age X=30.57; S.D.=6.07) and 30 somewhat younger undergraduate students (age X=19.1; S.D.=.48), respectively. A .677 correlation was found to exist between the EBS and the TMAS for 21 undergraduate psychology students (age X=20.33; S.D.=3.78). A correlation of .647 was found between the EBS and the TMAS for 25 graduate accounting students (age X=27.72; S.D.=4.01). Similarly, the EBS and the STAI were found to have a .863 ($p<.01$) correlation for the aforementioned adult undergraduate students. The EBS would be expected to show a moderately strong correlation with the two trait anxiety scales if one views trait anxiety as simply one sub-type of chronic stress arousal. Finally, convergent validity for the EBS is supported by the .987 ($p<.01$), the .989 ($p<.01$), the .991 ($p<.01$) and the .967($p<.01$) correlations between the EBS and the E-WGBS for 25 graduate accounting students, 25 adult undergraduate students, 21 graduate psychology students and 30 undergraduate accounting students, respectively. The concurrent criterion validity of the EBS has yet to be directly tested but must draw indirect support from the high correlation with the E-WGBS.

The two week test-retest reliability of the EBS has been shown to be .944 and .908 for 14 graduate accounting students (age X=27.21; S.D.=3.98) and 24 adult undergraduate students (age X=29.80; S.D.=5.60), respectively.

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

A practical tool for the assessment of stress arousal would be an important contribution to the literature. Such a tool could be used: 1)by researchers to assess stress levels in workers in a given occupational setting or across any given vocation, 2) by clinicians to assess the potential contribution of stress arousal to presenting medical or psychological symptomalogy, 3)as a personnel placement tool for screening employees vis-a-vis stress arousal, 4)in the insurance industry to assess risk from excessive stress, 5)in health education or management education settings to serve as an outcome measure (dependent variable) to assess the efficacy of any given stress management intervention, or finally 6)as a component in a general health screening/assessment battery.

The present paper reports the progress in the development of the Everly Behavioral Survey (EBS), a practical self-report scale for the assessment of chronic stress arousal. Although developmental procedures have been based upon small sample sizes to date, the EBS has shown strong indications of convergent construct validity and concurrent criterion validity. Similarly, the EBS has shown admirable test-retest reliability. Based upon the current data, the authors feel the EBS warrents continued utilization in order to generate additional validity and reliability data.

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METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES AND THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON RESEARCH

Arlene Fingeret[1]

Abstract

Two major research and theory-building traditions have been dominant in the social sciences in modern history; they are known familiarly as quantitative and qualitative research. They are based on different theoretical approaches to reality and knowledge. This paper is intended to facilitate communication between qualitative and quantitative researchers through discussion of the theoretical distinctions between the two paradigms, and reflection on the methodological implications of those differences.

The idea of qualitative research is more widely accepted today than ever before, among adult educators, and the ranks of qualitative researchers are swelling. Still, there exists confusion as to the real strengths and limits of qualitative research. Many adult educators, with research backgrounds only in more traditional quantitative methods, have difficulty conceptualizing, conducting or critically appraising qualitative studies.

This paper is intended to facilitate communication between qualitative and quantitative researchers, to support the continuing use of qualitative research by adult educators, and to provide an introduction to qualitative research for those currently unfamiliar with its potential for adult educators today. This paper is not intended to be a definitive description of qualitative research, or an in-depth analysis of the relationship between qualitative and quantitative research; there are excellent articles and texts on these topics already available (Bogdan and Biklen, 1981; Bogdan and Taylor, 1915; Rist, 1977; Rist, 1979). Rather, I hope to stimulate reflection in the research community about differing theoretical orientations to research, and their methodological implications.

Kerlinger (1973) has pointed out that the academic orientation to the teaching of research involves teaching students methods of research. We are all familiar with the usual academic research requirements: usually two or three semesters of statistics, a course on research design, perhaps some additional work on computer language and applications. Such "training" rarely includes courses on the philosophy of science, and presents the theoretical underpinnings of traditional quantitative approaches as if they were "truths" in themselves. Budding researchers are not encouraged to question the basis of knowing that is implicit in the quantitative design, nor is s/he encouraged to explore alternative theoretical approaches. Method is the focus of training, with theory only presented as necessary to facilitate the development of methodological skill.

Most researchers in adult education are not interested in becoming methodologists or philosophers of science. They primarily are concerned with the issues and problems that are the objects of inquiry, and desire to use research methods that are as effective as possible in increasing their understanding of those issues. Many adult educators now are interested in the potential of qualitative research, but do not have the theoretical orientation to research that allows access to qualitative paradigms. Thus, researchers trained and experienced in the use of quantitative methods seek to translate their understanding of methodology onto the methodology of qualitative research. And it doesn't work, because qualitative methods are based on a different theoretical orientation, a different theory of knowledge, a different understanding of terms like rigor and validity. These theoretical issues must be examined if researchers are to be able to move between research paradigms, according to the aspects of reality they seek to illuminate. Ray Rist has summed it up (1979, p. 17):

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"To speak of "qualitative" or "quantitative" research methodologies is, in the final analysis, to speak of an interrelated set of views about the social world which are philosophically, ideologically, and epistemologically distinct. Such views encompass more than mere data-gathering techniques."

Traditional quantitative research in the social sciences can be traced back to the work of August Comte and Emile Durkheim, and is derived from the emerging rules of inquiry in the natural sciences of the later 19th and early 20th centuries (Rist, 1979). Quantitative researchers most often relate to the traditions of positivism; their ultimate goal is the identification of causal "laws" that are context-free. Such research is based on the belief that there is one "reality" and that research will converge on that reality. Reality can be understood as a composite of separable, knowable elements, identified as "variables." Variables can be manipulated independently of each other, without influencing the entire system of elements. Reality is composed of "social facts," and these can be known through the senses: they can be seen, heard, or touched, and can be measured or in some form quantified. Research tests hypotheses that are logical implications of a priori theory and the cumulative tests of hypotheses create progress in "knowing" the world. The magnitude of relationships among variables is important, and sampling procedures play a central role. Since reality exists independently of the researcher, it is assumed that there is a lack of relationship between the "knower" and the "known" which must be protected; this is done largely through the careful use of instrumentation and attention to procedures such as interview protocols.

Quantitative researchers are trained to identify variables, develop hypotheses, validate instruments, apply appropriate sampling techniques, defend methods of statistical analysis and to present data in the form of tables of numbers. When confronted with a qualitative study, they want to know what the variables are, how the researcher insured reliability, the tests applied to analyze the data, and how the results are generalizable. Such questions arise from the research community's emphasis on transferring methods, rather than on understanding theoretical orientations from which methodology emerges. To these questioning quantitative researchers, qualitative researchers often appear to be little more than "anecdotal journalists," hanging out with folks, taking a few notes on the conversations, and then presenting interpretations of those conversations "as if" it were research! Qualitative research must be understood first as a theoretical orientation, and then judged methodologically in terms of that orientation.

Qualitative researchers are most often identified with the theoretical orientation of phenomenology (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975), although the definition of that term itself is controversial. Where the positivist is concerned with identifying social facts and causality, the phenomenologist attempts to objectively study participants' subjective states and their actions, in a particular situation (Bogdan and Biklen, 1981). While quantitative researchers are most concerned with the response itself (action, behavior), the qualitative researcher is interested in how that response was constructed. Although a number of different "schools" of qualitative research have emerged in the past decade, and quite a bit of methodological diversity has developed, all qualitative researchers share an interest in understanding how a subject sees a situation (Bogdan and Biklen, 1981).

The theoretical foundations for this approach derive from the work of several 19th century European social theorists, including Max Weber, Edmund Husserl, and Alfred Shutz (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975; Rist, 1979). Verstehen, Weber's concept of understanding human behavior from the point of view of the subject himself, is central to the qualitative perspective. Thus, there does not exist the separation of researcher and subject that exists in the quantitative approach. The researcher must actively try to put him/herself in the "shoes" of the subject, and try to understand how the subject understands his/her situation. The researcher is actively involved not just in asking questions and observing, but in the act of knowing itself. In quantitative analysis the actual data manipulation is done through the application of previously identified procedures which have an existence separate from the researcher. For the qualitative researcher, data analysis is an on-going process in which the researcher and participants jointly are involved in trying to understand the subject's frame of reference. The researcher is the instrument.

For the qualitative researcher, there is no single reality that exists apart from researcher and subject. Rather, there are multiple realities, and "meaning," central to qualitative research, is constructed by each participant in the setting. It is understood that the researcher, being present, is a part of the setting, and that knowledge is constructed by the participants and the researcher. Rather than attempt to produce context-free knowledge, qualitative researchers are interested in knowledge in context.

This is not to say that qualitative researchers do not believe that there are certain objective facts. Bogdan and Biklen (1981) provide this example: "A teacher may believe he can walk through a brick wall, but it takes more than thinking to accomplish it. The nature of the wall is unyielding, but the teacher does not care to perceive "reality" as it is. He may still believe that he can walk through the wall, but not at this thime, or that he had a curse put on him, and therefore, cannot walk through the wall." The qualitative researcher notes that a hard, "real" brick wall is there, and is interested in how the teacher "constructs" the reality of that wall.

For qualitative researchers, data consists of the words, feelings, thoughts and attitudes of the subjects, as well as their actions (Dodge and Bogdan, 1974). Methods, such as in-depth interviewing and participation observation, attempt to capture those words and thoughts through the use of tape or video recordings, photographs, personal documents such as diaries and journals, and extensive field notes. Qualitative researchers enter the field with a notion about the problem area they want to study. They do not begin with a priori theory and a derived hypothesis to test, but rather are engaged in the development of theory as they collect data. For this purpose, traditional statistical sampling is not necessary. Instead, theoretical sampling (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) is used: "The process of data collection for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes, and analyzes his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his theory as it emerges (p. 45)." Samples are chosen for their "theoretical purpose and relevance (p. 48)." The researcher, engaged in an on-going process of data collection and analysis, develops conceptual categories for the data, and theoretical satuaration is reached when additional data does not bring any new properties of the categories to light. The same themes are being found over and over again. In the process, the researcher is required to attempt to find as much diversity as possible. Glaser and Strauss (1967) compare theoretical and statistical sampling, "Theoretical sampling is done in order to discover categories and their properties, and to suggest the interrelationships into a theory. Statistical sampling is done to obtain accurate evidence on distributions of people among categories to be used in description or verification (p. 62)." Appropriate samples in each instance are very different. Statistical samples are identified through the application of techniques of random sampling; theoretical samples are identified on the basis of the categories relevant to the emerging theory. The qualitative researcher cannot precisely identify, prior to the study, how many or who will comprise his/her sample, while the quantitative researcher is required to do so. The quantitative researcher must include the entire random sample in the study, even when the data appears to be steadily repeating itself. The qualitative researcher must learn how to tell when theoretical saturation is reached. This takes skill, practice, and flexibility. The goal of some qualitative researchers is then to develop "grounded theory" (Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

There are different claims that can be made on the basis of theoretical sampling and statistical sampling. The most common concern is generalizability. Statistical sampling enables the researcher to make claims about the magnitude of [illegible] relationship between variables within a group or among groups. Qualitative researchers who have used only theoretical sampling cannot make these claims. Qualitative researchers can make claims that a relationship exists, and about the direction of the relationship, but in order to make claims about the magnitude of the relationship, statistical sampling, or some parallel procedure, must be used. For example, I have found that there appears to be a relationship between an illiterate adult's perception of what would be changed if s/he were to learn to read, and his/her perceptions of literate people. I can note the conditions that appear to influence this relationship, but I cannot make claims about the magnitude of the relationship.

Qualitative studies can be valuable, even when it is inappropriate to make traditional generalizability claims. Some qualitative researchers are not concerned with generalizing.

They are interested in presenting, in depth, one particular case, such as a classroom, for the purpose of sensitizing the reader. It is the task of others to figure out how this one case is relevant to other classrooms or to theories of social interaction or education. Other qualitative researchers are interested in exploring, for instance, issues common to classrooms, and for this purpose must study many classrooms. Theoretical sampling alone will not allow generalizations to all classrooms, but will allow the development of theory. Some qualitative researchers are interested in general social processes. In the classroom, they may find that a theme emerges, such as interaction between an authority figure and the object of authority, the student. The researcher is then interested in what other contexts that process is generalizable to, and may study settings such as prisons, families, or workplaces, in order to add to, clarify, or further develop the emerging theory.

In qualitative research studies, data is presented in the form of quotations taken from interviews or observations. Seen by some quantitative researchers as anecdotal, the value of the excerpts from field notes lies not in their individual message, but in their representation of a category of meaning that is relevant to the researcher's problem. New qualitative researchers with quantitative backgrounds may present a chart in which the numbers of responses that fit into a category are presented as evidence of the saliency of the category. However, the sample is theoretical rather than statistical and the data are not the numbers of responses but the words of the subjects themselves. Therefore, such charts have a tendency to confuse rather than to clarify the issues. Representation of the data in the form of quotations is necessary in order for a reader to make judgements as to how well the data supports the conclusions. Presentation of findings from quantitative studies can be clearly done, in all of its complexity. The richness of qualitative data is difficult to present. Only interpretation of the data can be quantified.

From this discussion, we can see why there are problems when quantitative researchers question the "validity" of qualitative research. Quantitative researchers are concerned that their instruments are actually measuring what they intend to measure. The qualitative researcher, who is the instrument, must make sure that s/he has managed to actually study the subject of inquiry, as it occurs in the real world. If I wish to make statements about how illiterate adults function in the world, I must actually observe illiterate adults as they work, play and go about their daily business.

The qualitative researcher has the difficult task of reflecting on his/her own biases to determine their influence on data gathering and conclusions. In a way, the researcher's feelings and attitudes are additional data to be taken into account. Sections of fieldnotes, often called memos, or observer's comments, specifically include such researcher reactions. In addition, many qualitative researchers use triangulation (Denzin, 1978) to confirm their data and conclusions. This involves use of more than one researcher, source of evidence, or data-gathering method. Thus, participant observation may be used in conjunction with in-depth interviews and personal documents; interviews with primary informants may be supplemented with interviews of others such as family members, relatives, neighbors, co-workers, or employers; fieldnotes may be taken or read by additional investigators. Finally, research conclusions are held up to the experience of the subjects and researchers, and asked if they make sense, if they are plausible given the context and the participants.

Qualitative researchers try to minimize their impact on a setting, with the understanding that it may not be possible to be totally unobtrusive. For this reason an interview will appear more like a conversation than the more formal interview favored by quantitative research (Bogdan and Biklen, 1981). Only through informal, personal conversation can a researcher really learn what a subject is thinking about. Similarly, interviews for qualitative researchers tend to be unstructured, allowing the conversation to follow wherever the subject would like to take it. The qualitative research design must be flexible enough to allow new directions in the researcher's pursuit of understanding. In more formal interviewing, the interview schedule is the instrument, and the same questions may be asked to all subjects to allow quantitative comparison of responses. However, this limits the ability of the researcher to learn things that s/he had not identified previously as important to the issue under study.

Qualitative and quantitative research methods, derived from different theoretical approaches to knowledge and reality, are appropriate for exploring different questions (Apps, 1972; Pillsworth and Ruddock. 1975). Qualitative and quantitative data each provide insight into distinct aspects of particular issues. For example, a current research focus is adult illiteracy in the United States. Quantitative research can provide information on the numbers of illiterate adults, the relationship between illiteracy and poverty or minority status, the numbers of illiterate adults enrolled in literacy programs, and reading achievement as reflected on tests. Qualitative studies can help us understand the quality of life for illiterate Americans, how they view the literate society, and the quality of interaction among students and teachers in a literacy program.

Quantitative and qualitative researchers must focus on their area of inquiry foremost, and not allow methodological bias to narrow their vision of the questions that may be addressed by research. As research in adult education continues to blossom, we must develop a more theoretical orientation to research paradigms in order to be able to move between the two major models of inquiry now available for educational researchers.

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THE EFFECTS OF A COUNSELING SKILL TRAINING PROGRAM FOR OLDER ADULTS

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Abstract

This study describes a peer paraprofessional training program for older adults (ages 55-80) and the effects of the training program upon the trainees. Empathy was used as a measure of success in counseling and a process analysis used as a measure of the effects of training on the training.

As the older adult population has continued to grow at the fastest rate of any age cohort in the country, interest in the training and utilization of paraprofessional peer counselors has escalated accordingly. Butler and Lewis (1977) contend that American Psychological Association statistics, which estimated in 1971 that at least fifteen percent of the older population, or some three million people, needed mental health services, were conservative. They maintain that these figures did not include substantial numbers of older people who, while not suffering from diagnosed mental disorders, were afflicted with lowered feelings of self-esteem and/or varying levels of dissatisfaction with life caused by their problems in coping with the varied problems of aging.

The rapid expansion of peer counseling programs for the aged is a logical and predictable consequence of the aforementioned demographic and social trends. Indeed, the potential of these peer counseling programs is multi-faceted; not only may such programs offer needed counseling services, but they may also provide increasingly needed employment opportunities for the aged. Little is presently known, however, about the selection, training and effectiveness of persons who may function as peer counselors to the aged. Investigations need to be conducted to provide information on such issues as the selection of elders who could benefit from training as peer paraprofessional counselors; the trainability of such persons in basic counseling skills; and the evaluation of their ultimate effectiveness in counseling peers. There is also the concomitant need to investigate the effects of the training process on the trainees.

Paraprofessionals and volunteers. The discrepancy between the numbers of people who need help and the helpers who can help is recognized. Ivy and Alschuler (1973, p. 591), however, point out that"...it is we who have created an artificially scarce helping resource by legally restricting 'help' to a specific role and by not teaching our colleagues, administrators, teachers, parents, and children the fundamentals of helping others." Indeed, it has become obvious that some holders of professional certificates paradoxically, may have incapacities which impede the quality of the services for which one is presumably trained or certified to provide. The ability to help others is not guaranteed by certification may actually interfere with or impede one's ability to deal with certain groups of helpees (Grosser et al., 1969). These developments and other factors have facilitated the emergence of paraprofessionals and volunteers in the human services.

Paraprofessionals are considered to have certain advantages over professionals. Often, they can relate more readily with particular groups than can professionals who frequently come from very different backgrounds than the clients being served. The value of paraprofessionals as "enhancement educators" is discussed by D'Augelli (1975). In this role, the paraprofessional functions as a trainer of skills, a shaper of competencies and a provider of specific knowledge of life skills. Peer conselors also have particular advantages because they often share values and common life experiences with each other and with the clients.

Training the non-professional helper. Lewis and Lewis (1977) maintain, "As more community members receive skill training, the helping function can return to the community, where it has, in fact, always belonged" (p. 61). The skills needed to develop helping relationships are not very much different from those needed for effective interpersonal living.

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Counselor-client relationship (Empathy). The interpersonal relationship between a counselor and client is a critical factor in the success or failure of the counseling experience. More specifically, some studies have shown that both the therapist's attitudes and feelings are crucial to effective counseling (Betz and Whitehorn, 1956; Fiedler, 1953: Halkides, 1958). Empathy has been demonstrated to be one of the most relevant dimensions of a counselor's interviewing skills (Truax, 1963). It represents an accurate communication of the thoughts and feelings of the client. It entails both sensitivity to feelings and the verbal ability to communicate this empathic understanding to the client so that he/she perceives the counselor as being accurately understanding. These communications serve to expand the client's awareness of his/her feelings and is communicated to the client by the counselor in a language which is attuned to the client's current feelings.

DESIGN

The basic design is a pre-post test paradigm with control and experimental groups.

	Pre-Test	Training	Post-Test
Control	O_1		O_2
Experimental	O_3	X	O_4

COMPOSITION AND SELECTION OF SUBJECTS

Subjects were randomly selected from a pool of aged individuals who had participated previously in personal growth programs at the Oakland University Continuum Center. The Continuum Center of Oakland University is an adult counseling and leadership training center designed to assist people of all ages and stages of life in self-exploration, planning and decision making. The Continuum Center which originally came into existence as a women's center, has diversified its clientele and operations so that it now serves men as well as women from young adulthood to old age. Most of the Continuum Center's counseling is done in small groups led by carefully selected and trained paraprofessionals working under the supervision of professionally trained staff members.

Since 1972, the Continuum Center has been involved in offering time limited group counseling programs for older people in various community centers in the metropolitan Detroit area. Some of these centers have religious affiliations, some are municipally funded and some are supported by labor unions. The pool of participants from which the subjects in the study were selected came from these personal growth group counseling programs operated under the aegis of the Oakland University Continuum Center. Over 400 people have participated to date in these programs.

Experimental Group: The experimental group was comprised of ten members who were randomly selected from the pool of participants in the personal growth programs sponsored by the Oakland University Continuum Center. There were men and women between the ages of 55 and 77.

Control Group: The control group was comprised of ten members randomly selected from the same pool of participants in the personal growth programs. The control group consisted of men and women between the ages of 55 and 80.

INSTRUMENTS USED TO MEASURE SPECIFIC VARIABLES

Empathy. In order to evaluate pre and post empathy skills of the experimental and control groups, a video taped "mini" interview was administered. In the interview, the trainees had the opportunity to portray the role of a counselor. The tapes were then scored using the Hoffman revision of the Truax-Carkhuff scales.

In order to score the scales, three aged individuals, members of the same original pool of candidates, were trained in the use of the scale in rating the tapes. The three raters were trained using other video tapes of simulated counseling interviews which had been conducted during previous adult paraprofessional training courses at the Continuum Center.

Once the raters had been trained, an evaluation of the reliability of the assessments were conducted using Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance.

The Training Program. The training program itself consisted of ten sessions which met on a twice per week basis. Each session consisted of five hours, split between a morning and an afternoon session. The morning sessions were based on an adaptation of the Systematic Human Relations Training Model (Carkhuff, 1972). The trainees were taught the skills of attending, observing and reporting of the physical behavior of the helpers, identifying both feelings and content and making the appropriate action-oriented responses. Afternoon sessions were conducted to help the trainees institute the skills learned during the morning sessions. The trainees received the opportunity of leading the group counseling session. The participants were encouraged to implement the counseling skills learned during the morning session. In other words, the trainees actually attempted to implement the counseling skills in a group of peers who closely resemble the clientele they will be counseling. There was critiquing of the sessions, the skills and the leadership roles by the staff and the group itself. All trainees had an opportunity to actually lead the group and use their newly acquired skills.

The experimental group program combined didactic training and experiential procedures leading the trainees through skills in attending and observing and reporting the behavior of the helpers. Particular attention was paid to constructive and effective counseling responses such as empathy.

PROCESS ANALYSIS OF TRAINING

In order to discover what actually was occurring to the individual participants during the training process, three five minute segments of each of sessions two, four and six were subjected to analysis. The William Fawcett Hill Matrix was used for this purpose (Hill,1974). The Hill Matrix was utilized because of its appropriateness as a tool for analyzing small group processes and training sessions in particular. Coders for the analysis of the training sessions were trained by the staff at the Oakland Continuum Center. The coders were students in research methodology at Oakland University.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Video taped simulated counseling interviews were taken both pre-and post-training. These video tapes were rated using the Hoffman Scale of Empathy. The judges who rated the tapes were olders who had been trained to rate video tape counseling interviews.

The judges who rated the tapes had a reliability of .9400, using Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance in the training process, and an actual reliability of .8735 in the evaluation and rating of the tapes. As Table 1 indicates, there was a significant difference in the empathy skills of the older helpers who underwent the training program at Oakland University Continuum Center.

TABLE 1
Empathy Scale
Analysis of Covariance

Source	ss	df	ms	F	P
Covariate	21.546	1			
Treatment	54.578	1		23.8124*	.00015
Error	43.556	19	2.292		
Total	119.68	21			

*(F=23.8124, df 1,19, $p < .01$)

The olders in this study showed a significant improvement in the counseling dimension of empathy as a result of training when compared to a control group which received no training. This would suggest that aged individuals can be trained in basic counseling skills, at least, in the skill of communicating empathy.

When the Hill Interaction Matrix was applied to the analysis of the training in empathy process, the raters matrices were analyzed using an analysis of variance approach to the twenty categories of the Hill Matrix. The author examined the differences between sessions two, four and six, using three five minute randomly sampled sections from each of the three video taped sessions.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

The analysis of data revealed that aged individuals could probably be trained to become effective peer paraprofessional counselors. The assessment of this was accomplished by video taping simulated counseling situations prior to training and after training. These video tapes were rated by trained judges on the level of empathy displayed. When subjected to statistical analysis, the numbers of the experimental group showed improvement in the counseling dimension of empathy.

In analyzing the process of training, by using the Hill Matrix, and subjecting the results to statistical analysis, several items proved to be significant. All of the areas which showed statistical significance were on the personal level. People became more personally assertive (F=50.6736, df 1,9, $p < 01$), persona-ly speculative (F-8.3618, df 1, 9, $p < 01$) as a result of training.

CONCLUSIONS

When one measures counseling success by using the counseling dimension of empathy as a criterion for success, the aged individuals who participated in the peer paraprofessional training program showed that it is indeed possible to train olders in at least one important dimension of counseling. The olders displayed a significant improvement in the counseling dimension of empathy.

When applying the Hill Matrix to the training program in order to analyze the process, the positive results obtained in the personal area were of import. Several questions are raised when one analyzes the personal line in all five cells. The literature in counseling has been rather consistent in its assertions of the traits desired in counselors. Responsiveness to the client's problems, for example, is a requisite for effective counseling. And yet, training, in fact, did not create more responsive counseling behavior in the sampling of olders as measured by the Hill Interaction Matrix.

Further, responsiveness is seen as a passive and reactive form of behavior; stated somewhat differently, a counselor responds by reacting to a client's presented problem. When looking at the data in the personal assertive category, one can conclude that training creates more assertive personal responses. It would seem that assertive personal behavior on the part of a counselor in the counseling relationship does not lend itself to a warm, trusting, genuine relationship.

The data on the personal speculative cell show that training, in fact, creates a greater degree of personal speculation and introspection on the part of the aged in training. This would be an undesirable trait for fully trained counselors but may indeed be a necessary preliminary initial phase in counselor training programs. In speculating on the value of alternatives for the client, on assessment of the client's problem and on movement for the client, the content speculation and introspection are extremely helpful in the creation of a good counseling relationship. However, speculation by the counselor of the counselor's own concerns in the counseling relationship itself would be undesirable.

When examining the data in the personal confrontative area, we can see that training in the counseling dimension of empathy, does indeed make the individual more confrontative on personal issues. This trait could, in fact, reflect both positive and negative results. Confronting the client on a given issue when appropriately timed and placed is an integral part of the counseling process. However, if a trainee simply becomes more personally confrontative without an appropriate movement in Topics-Confrontative, one might question the training program and its reported success in the training of peer counselors.

The final three personal areas, (personal assertiveness, personal speculation, personal confrontation) are of the active nature, and in essence, present several interesting issues to be examined in the future. If, indeed, as a result of the training of olders to become paraprofession-l counselors, one is making them more assertive, more confrontative and more speculative on the personal dimension, one ought to examine the implications for the future training of counselors for the aged.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

One implication of this study is that aged individuals can very likely be trained to become effective peer paraprofessional counselors. This is a very significant finding because it allows us to venture forth and create training programs for the use of aged individuals to meet the counseling needs of their peers. The nature of the training programs, however, may have to be altered in order to accommodate the special tendencies of this sub-population.

A second question might be asked. If the data are as conclusive as they seem to be, perhaps before or during the training process special attention needs to be paid to the areas of personal assertiveness, personal speculation and personal confrontation so that a clearer understanding of the role these dimensions play in counseling is integrated within the counselor training program. If this is simply an initial phase of the process of training counselors, and not unique to this sub-population, one might choose to alter the length of a training program in order to deal with this problem. A comparative study aimed at resolving the issue could be conducted between a peer paraprofessional counselor training program as described in this study and another training program of longer duration. Another study which might be undertaken is to compare an aged peer paraprofessional training program with one of the adult peer training programs in order to ascertain if this phenomenon appears to be age related. In other words, did the participants in this study become more introspective on personal issues as a result of becoming old or is it simply part of the counselor training program.

Another area for investigation is the use of non-professionals, including peers, as resource counselors to work in conjunction with professionals. Vickers (1973) points out that there are many "natural" counselors who are sought out and who seem to be able to offer help simply because they share similar life experiences. A question to be addressed in the future might include a further delineation of the types of counselor traits that seem to be helpful to the aged, and in conjunction, "What types of help do most aged individuals seek?" If most elderly people seek information, then our peer paraprofessionals should be trained to meet this need. If most elderly people seek informational data and are not receptive to long-term reflective counseling, training programs of both paraprofessionals and professional counselors must reflect these needs.

The aged population will continue to grow in numbers. To date there seems to be no indication that their needs for counseling will be met by the current cadre of mental health professionals. If, indeed, the use of paraprofessionals is the only way to meet this increasing demand, one must make sure that one is training competent people who meet the demands and needs of their clientele. Training programs must be directed towards the needs of the aged population and must be refined so that the paraprofessionals do fill the void in counseling services for the aged.

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FOUNDATIONS AND LIFELONG LEARNING: AN ANALYSIS OF THREE FOUNDATIONS AND THEIR SERVICE TO ADULTS

Frederic P. Gardner[1]

Abstract

This paper deals with private philanthropic foundations in general descriptive terms, their evolution in American society and especially their relationships to the area of lifelong learning. It examines specifically the current state aims and listed accomplishments of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, the Lilly Endowment and the Mott Foundation. It suggests a vital potential for lifelong learning professionals.

Foundations are essentially a Twentieth Century invention. During the 1800's most wealthy people could contribute very little to an individual institution dealing with enriching the quality of life. As technology and America's unique response to it grew, certain individuals were able to amass huge estates. As the Federal government began to tax its constituents, these unusual individuals became philanthropic, and ultimately created the "philanthropoid" - a professional at giving away money. It is a certifiable fact that individuals in the United States grew to have assets greater than institutions they would later endow. Never had we had the chance for a single person to exert such influence. In fact, the greatness of the estates molded after the Civil War enable the lucky entrepreneurs to conceptualize well beyond funding small individual colleges or agencies and begin to think in terms of changing the very social fabric of society itself. Private, independent philanthropic foundations, free of Federal tax and regulation, evolved as the public sense of what is appropriate came into being during years of self-analysis, a new aspect of being American.

Historian Merle Curti feels that formal foundation activity began on March 1, 1902 when John D. Rockefeller gave an initial million dollars to launch the General Education Board. Ultimately he would give an additional 118 million over the next sixteen years to support well-established institutions and raise matching funds.

Andrew Carnegie, an early benefactor of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, founded the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in 1903 which resulted in pensions for college teachers if the colleges conformed to certain standards. Thus, the "Carnegie Unit" evolved and ultimately the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association (T.I.A.A.) became a reality. Later the Carnegie Corporation, a foundation, would be accused of trying to control the American colleges and universities. Already, it seems, foundations were becoming controversial.

Lifelong learning certainly is not part of the rhetoric of the 1800's. However, after the creation of the Rockefeller and Carnegie foundations, people began to speculate. One researcher puts it this way: "The Carnegie Corporation has been generally viewed as the principal organizer of adult education, rather than the initiator of its own concept or definition of the terms". (Rose, 1978). The Corporation convened the first meeting of the American Association for Adult Education in Cleveland in 1925 (Rose, 1978).

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Altruism is not the sole motivating factor in establishing philanthropic organizations. The giant Ford Foundation came about as a result of the Ford family not wishing to pay the estate taxes the Roosevelt administration imposed in 1936. By the time Henry's son Edsel died in 1943, the Foundation held nearly 90 percent of the Ford Motor Company with an estimated value of more than two billion dollars. (Curti, 1965).

Analysis of the performance records of American foundations professing interest in education reveals that in 1977-78, for example, there were 6,930 grants made in that area accounting for 23 percent of dollars distributed. While only one percent of the dollars distributed went specifically for "adult" education, a significant number were, in actuality, destined for adults. The primary independent foundations supporting adult (lifelong learning) education were the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, the Lilly Endowment, Inc. and the C. S. Mott Foundation.

Located in the Midwestern United States, these independent foundations control huge monies. They are in the top ten, in terms of assets, of over 25,000 private foundations. Kellogg, Lilly and Mott were ranked third, eighth and tenth respectively in 1977-78 in terms of size. They are relatively similar in terms of aggregate amounts of grants. The assets of each are between one-half and one billion dollars with payouts annually between 25 and 50 million dollars. The total dollars controlled by foundations exceed 30 billion.

Adult education or "lifelong learning" is an all-encompassing term embracing all sorts of activities. Giants such as Carnegie, Rockefeller or Ford clearly stimulate national educational institutions to interact with adults. However, for purposes of this paper, we shall consider Kellogg, Lilly and Mott. The following table illustrates the extent of these three independent foundations' activity during a representative year, 1978.

1978

	Lilly	Mott	Kellogg
Type	general purpose	general purpose, 1926	general purpose, 1930
Assets (millions)	653	396	827
Type Grants	project	project	project
Grant Distribution	nation, emphasis on Indiana	national, emphasis on Michigan	international, national
Total Grants	21 million (122)	28.5 million (287)	41 million (421)
Average Grant	$174,000	$99,139	$98,860
Education	8,097,320 (38%)	17,396,738 (61%)	25,025,014 (60%)
Average	$4,048,660 (2 grants)	$110,807 (157 grants)	$114,793 (218 grants)

Table I Extent and Nature of Foundation

In dealing with the Kellogg, Lilly and Mott foundations it is not sufficient to consider the facts. So much emotion, circumstance and luck entered into the remarkable accomplishments of these corporate entities that some biographical considerations cannot be excluded. What follows is an all too cursory depiction of the men and their contributions.

The W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

When W. K. Kellogg (1860-1951) realized he was going to be wealthy, he began to think about how he personally would benefit mankind. A Seventh-day Adventist, Kellogg had long anonymously assisted in nutritional studies and matters related to health and medicine. The W. K. Kellogg Foundation was founded in 1930, ..."dedicated to the health, education and well-being of children and youth." (Kellogg, 1979) It has grown to a giant organization dealing worldwide with the application of existing knowledge to the problems of people in the areas of agriculture, education and health.

The Kellogg Foundation consciously supported continuing education programs, especially for people in the health-related professions. Its Center of Continuing Education at East Lansing, Michigan (1951) stands as a monument that continuing education is an investment in people. Programs held at Michigan State University for adults deal with improving skills in vocations and professions as well as richer community and personal living.

Mr. Kellogg was a dynamic, devout and determined man whose personal life directed much of his philanthrophy. Financially he was able to endow a foundation which now is one of the largest. Because of family tragedy, he made almost heroic commitments. His nine residential conference centers are eloquent testimonial to his basic feelings regarding the value of adult continuing education.

Study of the annual reports of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation reveals a pronounced proclivity to fund lifelong learning activities through colleges and universities. In 1976, for example, the grants listed under "Fostering Access to Lifetime Learning Opportunities,' ten of thirteen were to collegiate institutions. The pattern persists with Kellogg supporting projects for several years.

Interdisciplinary projects were in vogue by 1978. The Kellogg Foundation stated this in its Report of 1979. Clearly, they were concerned with agriculture, education and health with a wider focus. The trend continues today. A logical expansion of this concept is to transcend political borders and consider problems not only in terms of interdisciplinary contexts, but in international ones as well. In 1980 Kellogg reported $50 million expended for projects worldwide.

The Lilly Endowment, Inc.

A disclaimer appears in a recent annual report of the Lilly Foundation. "...the dollars available from the Endowment - indeed, from philanthropic foundations - are miniscule compared to the financial powers of government at all levels." (Lilly, 1979) Despie this feeling, consensus has it that the private foundation is free to be creative, flexible and free of political considerations. Lilly exemplifies this notion.

In examining annual reports of Lilly Endowment, Inc. for the five years from 1976-1980, a philosophy emerges. Eli Lilly died in 1977. The 1976 Report is in his memory. He remained active on the Board until his death. Lilly was a founder in 1937. The Board endorses projects to encourage education, directed toward ethical, moral and social values.

Foundations, by law, social custom and moral responsibility, are required to give away their funds for educational, religious. scientific, cultural and charitable purposes. Even projects that fail are often not seen as a waste. Richard Bolling of Lilly says, "Investment in creative failure is one of the necessities for human progress." (Lilly, 1976)

For 1976 the Annual Report highlighted the leadership of individuals involved with supported projects. These ranged from Newark's North Ward Cultural Center (for Newark's white ethnic community), to advocates of children rights, replacing rural cabins in Mississippi to faculty development at Virginia Commonwealth University. The range is indeed broad.

Adult learning projects per se are difficult to cull from the annual reports. Some titles include "Training program to assist local organizations with resettlement of refugees," "Program in Lifelong Learning" (Calumet College), "Programs for Adults" (Eckerd College), and numerous grants for faculty development and training programs at various colleges. Lilly's total expenditures from 1976-1980 exceeded 151 million dollars.

Adults as leaders seems central to Lilly's philosophy. This translates into continuing education, especially for professionals. Another goal of the Endowment is to get more minorities into college teaching, especially at independent institutions.

The 1978 Annual Report is especially useful as it focuses on the grant-making process. A detailed explanation of how requests for funds are handled is presented along with guidelines. The 1979 Report continues to detail the Endowment philosophy. In each, continuing education for adult leadership is central. The 1980 Report deals with the stewardship of trustees in general as part of the volunteer sector and describes efforts to help college and university trustees.

The Mott Foundation.

Charles Stewart Mott founded the organization in 1935. Like Kellogg, Mott had a long prior history of charitable activities especially in Flint, Michigan where he made his fortune in the automotive industry and served as Mayor of Flint. (Young, 1963) Mott was highly idealistic and very interested in adult education. He worked closely with the Flint Board of Education to open the schools at night. Intended to reduce juvenile delinquency, the program attracted adults and by 1942 had expanded to college credit courses.

At age eighty-two Mott was awarded the Adult Education Association of Michigan "Award of Merit" (1959) (Young, 1963). Mott earned national recognition for his community-school concept. By 1958-59 the Mott Foundation was serving nearly 80,000 adults in the Flint area. In the postwar era Mott sponsored residential extension centers for adult education as well as serving the citizens of Flint.

The Mott Foundation, among the Nation's 25,000, is tenth in size in total assets among independent foundations (Kellogg is third and Lilly eighth). Its net worth exceeds one-half billion dollars, and it currently funds projects in excess of thirty million dollars annually. The three foundations are roughly in the same rank order in terms of their funding patterns.

CONCLUSION

Analysis of the three foundations reveals several trends. First, each bears the stamp of the personality of the founder. While it is likely that the biographies available from the Foundations are written in somewhat heoric language, the deeds of these three men remain awesome. Each was alive during trying times nationally and observed increasing government power and regulation. Each shifted from a primarily local Midwestern orientation to national and international concern. Each evolved when huge fortunes could be amassed by one person. Each has seen fit to support lifelong learning projects, especially those providing long term solutions to problems through leadership.

Second, a trend toward sharply focused funding patterns seems to be revealed in the annual reports. Very little money goes to institutions for general support. This leads to a competitive situation for proposal writers and leads me to suggest that study of the annual reports and, when feasible, of institutional histories is vital.

Third, if my initial reason for examining foundations is valid, a trend toward lifelong learning personnel to seek funding from foundations is afoot. Support for projects is reduced by government and may be diminished by private enterprise leaving Foundations under pressure to fill the gap. Continuing education professional then, will need to be more attuned to the vicissitudes of these remarkable organizations called foundations.

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AN ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF A LESSON SERIES ON DEATH AND DYING IN CHANGING ADOLESCENTS' DEATH ANXIETY AND ATTITUDES TOWARD OLDER PEOPLE

J. Conrad Glass, Jr.
Elizabeth S. Knott[1]

Abstract

The primary purpose of this study was to determine if a lesson series of 10 fifty-minute sessions on death and dying could influence significant changes in death anxiety and attitudes toward older persons among senior highs in North Carolina. The sample consisted of classes in eight high schools selected at random. The experimental groups participated in the series of ten lessons taught by the regular classroom teacher and completed pretest and posttest attitude scales. The control groups, classes meeting at the same time as the experimental groups, received no training but responded to the pretest and posttest. The Kogan's Old People's Scale (1961) and the Templer-McMordie Death Anxiety Scale (McMordie, 1979) were the attitude scales used in the study. The least squares analysis was used to analyze the data.

The 20th century has brought tremendous strides in life-saving and life-maintaining technologies. We are living longer than ever and we are preventing disabling diseases from attacking us with more proficiency. However, there seems to be a corresponding increase in many people's inability to cope with the death experience. The denying of one's own inevitable death seems pervasive in our society--a defense mechanism that appears to be causing more anxiety than comfort (Kubler-Ross, 1969; Hinton, 1973).

Death education can be one means of confronting and possibly reducing these anxieties. By having the opportunity to gain knowledge about the death experience and to examine one's own attitudes, values, and feelings about death, it is possible to learn something about life. The goal of death education is not to eliminate all fear, for the rational fear of death has survival value (Levition, 1977). The goal is rather to change those fears, such as fear of pain or leaving behind unfinished tasks, which can be ameliorated.

Also, in our society, an association is often made between growing old and death. Fiefel (1959) states that the accent on youth and the continual search for a 'fountain of youth' reflects, to a certain degree, anxieties about death. To be young is good; to grow old is to die. According to Fiefel, a society's rejection of the elderly is due, in part, to the fact that they remind us of death. The social cost to the elderly of this rejection can be high. Little research has been done empirically (Salter & Salter, 1976) to test the relationship between attitudes toward death and attitudes toward older adults.

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This present study was designed to build on a previous project among middle-aged and older adults (Trent, Glass, and McGee, 1981). The basis for expanding this project lay in the question, "If the attitudes of middle-aged and older adults toward death and dying can be changed through carefully planned educational experiences, is it possible to change adolescents' attitudes through the same means?" The primary purpose of the present study was to determine whether adolescents' levels of death anxiety and attitudes toward older adults could be changed through participation in a series of 10 fifty-minute lessons on death and dying. A second purpose was to determine the extent to which certain selected personal and situational characteristics of the adolescents (sex, age, race, religious preference, place in family and previous experience with death) were associated with pretest levels of death anxiety and attitudes toward older adults.

The researchers developed a series of 10 fifty-minute lessons which offered the students the opportunity to learn about the various aspects of the death experience. Topics covered included societal attitudes toward death and dying; customs surrounding death, in our culture and in other cultures; the funeral ceremony; the stages of death and of grief; and how to be a caregiver. The students reflected on their own attitudes toward death, both the death of others and their own dying, and were given the opportunity to interact with others to share these feelings and attitudes. The instructional methodology included a variety of learning experiences such as: Lecture-discussion, audio-visual presentations, small group activity and sensitivity exercises.

The sample for this study consisted of eight senior high schools selected at random from various sections of North Carolina. The approval of the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction was gained, as well as the approval of the superintendent of each school system and the principal of each school, before involvement with the project began. The selection of the experimental class at each school was based on the appropriateness of the lesson series on death and dying within the subject matter of the class, as well as the willingness of the teacher to implement the lesson series. A variety of classes were utilized including psychology, social studies, and family life.

The study employed a pretest → treatment → posttest design. In five of the schools, two classes which met at the same time were selected with one class constituting the experimental group and the other the control group. In three of the schools there were multiple sections of the course into which the lesson series were integrated. All sections of that course were included in the experimental group while a separate class meeting at the same time as the first section of the experimental group constitued the control group. The experimental group participated in the series of 10 fifty-minute lessons on death and dying and completed the pretest and the posttest. The control group received no instruction but completed the pretest and the posttest.

The researchers had individual orientation meetings with each teacher well in advance of the implementation of the lesson series in order to acquaint them with the leader's guide and the resource materials. The researchers also met with each teacher after the lesson series was completed to gather direct feed-back on the content of the lessons and the students' reponses to the various activities.

A questionnaire was developed to gather demographic and personal data from each individual. Each student also completed the Kogan Old People's Scale (Kogan, 1961) and the Templer-McMordie Death Anxiety Scale (McMordie, 1979) as pretests. Both scales were administered to the experimental and control grups as a posttest at the conclusion of the lesson series.

A least squares analysis was used to perform the analysis of variance to establish F values for the significance of the relationship between the various dependent variables and the independent variables (sex, age, race, religious preference, place in family and previous experience with death).

The lesson series were completed at all eight schools by December, 1981. The final paper to be presented at the conference will give a fuller account of the methodology, the content of the lesson series, the findings derived from analysis of the data, and implications.

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PILGRIM'S PROGRESS
OR
A PERSONAL ACCOUNT OF DATA MANAGEMENT IN QUALITATIVE INDUCTIVE RESEARCH

Doe Hentschel[1]

Abstract

This paper presents a discussion of some of the problems faced by researchers conducting qualitative, inductive studies and focuses on procedures involved in collecting and analyzing qualitative data. Specific examples from the author's research in progress are shared.

They are popping up at research conferences everywhere--educational researchers reporting qualitative, inductive, naturalistic studies. These reports are alluring to novice researchers who infer that one can do research while avoiding the terror of mastering sophisticated statistical procedures, the complexity of developing instruments which can be certified valid and reliable, the boredom of writing (and, for others, reading) formalized, jargon-laden reports of hypotheses stated and tested, and the frustration of concentrating on some clearly and carefully defined and delimited segment of reality which, by virtue of its clarity and limits, is so infinitesimal that it is also uninteresting and unenlightening. But alas, the enchantment with what lies on the other side of the fence is frequently and often with alarming swiftness effectively squelched when unsuspecting pilgrims discover that there are no agreed-upon rules to follow, that the exemplary studies in this mode are each unique and by their very nature very nearly un-replicable, and that "seasoned" researchers (who usually wield an inordinate amount of control over the spirit and behavior of fledgling scholars through such mechanisms as doctoral committees and proposal review [illegible]) are at best skeptical of such studies which appear to them to be little else than fishing expeditions and of researchers who will not define terms, explain conceptual frameworks, state hypotheses, describe in explicit detail their research designs, or even specify the size of their sample. If they survive and overcome these challenges to their sanity and embark on such a journey toward "truth," they quickly discover the rationale behind the warnings. They continually are forced to revise their estimated time frames (such studies always take longer than anticipated); they become inundated with data which look nothing like what they anticipated (forgetting, of course, that anticipation is not supposed to be among the baggage on this trip); and they even begin to doubt their own intellectual and creative abilities which they had expected to draw upon to produce knowledge from what now seem like unorganized, unsystematic, inconsistent bits of trivia, no matter how interesting and occasionally fascinating they seem to be.

I cannot help but make an analogy between this journey and that of newborn Christians who agree to give up their Selves to follow the Lord with the faith that our reward will be far greater than any we would or could design or fantasize on our own and with our known resources. That proves to be a powerful and compelling motivation to persevere, even when we don't know where we are going and do know very well that where we are at the moment is not very comfortable and is indeed even painful at times.

I would hope that this symposium will contribute to your sense that the ecstasy which is promised is worth the agony one is likely to endure in reaching it. As a fellow traveler, I hope to achieve two goals: first to both de-mystify and personalize this kind of research--to convince you that this is a journey on which real people, just like yourselves, can embark, and that a part of the process is a total, personal immersion in and relationship with your research questions, your subjects and your data (and I recognize the heresy which I have just stated). Secondly, I would hope to inspire you to beginand send you on your way with faith that you will (someday, somehow, though both remain somewhat unknown) arrive at your destination and with some suggested guides to pack in your bags to use as you need them.

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These goals may very well result in the most non-traditional research paper you have ever heard or read. So much the better, for if you are even to consider doing this kind of research, you must cultivate a perspective of your world and your relationship with it which enables you to be open to going where you are led rather than always defining and directing your progress, to accepting everything you see, hear and experience as being valid and explainable rather than judging some things as irrelevant or inconsequential, and to interpret that world and all its parts from a viewpoint which is ever changing and inclusive of that which you have not previously expected, known, experienced or understood.

Our other speakers will address some of the initial obstacles you will face. Assuming that you decide to pack your bag and climb over the fence, I'd like to focus on the problems you may encounter not long after your feet hit the ground. Research literature of the last several decades includes numerous helpful resources which address the issue of collecting, organizing and interpreting qualitative data. My suggestion is that you get into this literature as well as some of the exemplary studies using qualitative data and/or inductive methods but that you not belabor the process. Simply get a sense of the possibilities, of the key issues involved with design and systematic analysis (which cannot be avoided with this mode of inquiry any more than with more conventional approaches) and with some of the ways in which others have attempted to address those issues. And then begin. Begin with a small inquiry--something you care about knowing but on which your professional reputation is not likely to be built or based--and find out what a conceptual category is by discovering some; find out which kind of folders and what color markers to use by experimenting with different kinds; and most importantly, find out what it feels like to sink into a deep well of information, struggle to surface, flail around a bit trying to stay afloat, eventually navigate to the edge of the well, emerge and view where you have been in such a way that enables you to explain the nature of that well to others. If that experience feels good, then you have not only learned much of what you need to know to do it again, but you may very well be "hooked" and ready to take a more consequential trip.

With that preface, let me humbly share with you some of the scenes along my current journey (my first on this side of the fence) much as your friends might share slides of a marvelous vacation on the other side of the globe, not that you will follow the same path but that you may be inspired to plan a trip of your own knowing something about what lies ahead.

Over a decade ago Houle challenged adult educators to determine how "we, ourselves, use study, practice and continuing self-examination to build clarity of thought, expertness of technique and some measure of wisdom" (1970, p. 109). Since that time, adult education scholars have studied how members of other professions do precisely that, but we have generally ignored our own emerging profession as an environment for inquiry. My own research interests lie in just this direction. Reactions to early papers on the impact of a specific continuing education experience on the knowledge and professional practices of adult educators have led me to the articulation of a broader question. The research is boldly titled "The Continuing Professional Education of Adult Educators: Its Form, Function and Worth." Although the project is a year underway, it is in its initial stages. In fact, I am getting accustomed to thinking of it as being a lifetime project. I am not sure I will know when it is completed, but I certainly know that it will be some time before I can attempt to answer the three questions I have posed with any sense that I am presenting a conceptual framework which represents systematic theory. In conducting this study, I have so far found Guba's discussion of naturalistic inquiry (1978) and the grounded theory approach described by Glaser and Strauss(1967) especially helpful references.

The organizing framework (not to be confused with hypotheses) I am employing has several dimensions. The "field" of adult education is understood to be broad and amorphous, including a range of workers from volunteers to parttime teachers to trained adult education specialists (Houle, 1970). Continuing professional education is viewed as all types of learning (divided into credit, non-credit and non-formal activities) seen by the adult educator as enhancing his/her professional growth, development and practice (which are self-defined). At this time, I am exploring these questions only from the perspective of the adult educator, but sometime before I am a certifiable older adult, I hope to expand that perspective to include that of employers, providers of continuing professional education activities, and the society in general.

Initial data collection began with a mailed survey of adult educators in the Chicago-Milwaukee corridor who belong to AEA/USA and its Illinois affiliate. This open-ended survey provided an initial profile of their learning activities during the past two years as well as demographic data to enable formulation of initial comparison groups. In-depth, semi structured interviews with selected respondents were planned to enable elaboration of survey data as well as additional topics which could best be approached in an interview setting.

I recall my excitement when the first batch of returned questionnaires appeared in my mailbox. Half a dozen was not a large number, but I eagerly read each one. I registered some disappointment that some respondents had not been very verbose; I was expecting detailed accounts of learning that followed a format I had prescribed at least in my head. With initial delight I read one very lengthy response; then, as I attempted (too soon, I now believe) to figure out how this response "fit" with the others, I realized I had no idea how to do that. Summing quantifiable data (and I had quite a great deal) didn't really tell me what I wanted to know, and since the details on each survey were so idiosyncratic, it appeared the only thing I could do would be to write six separate summaries--a task I hardly relished and instinctively questioned in terms of usefulness. My frustration led to a diversion. I put the entire project aside (which was a good move at the time, even though it was done for the wrong reason) possibly, I now suspect, waiting for Divine guidance.

When I had accumulated about 25 responses and renewed enthusiasm, I once again began reading. By now it was evident that quantifying or summarizing in brief case study form were not only undesirable approaches but would be humanly impossible. It would have been like counting the chunks of different colored morsels in a vat of fruit cocktail and then trying to figure out how many whole pieces of each kind of fruit had been used as well as identifying the other ingredients and how much of each had gone into the syrup.

I needed another direction. I recalled Glaser and Strauss's discussion of controlling for similarities and differences and began to sort the questionnaires into two stacks: the "typical" and the "atypical." My criteria were subjective and fluid; some questionnaires moved from one stack to another as new data were considered. Demographic as well as substantive data contributed to the decision. "Atypical" responses were from a mid-life career changer, a "big spender," a "front-door" adult educator, a full-time doctoral student, a non-participant who reported "being diagnosed as having leukemia" as a learning experience, a college administrator who had learned from "running for and winning a political office," a retired professor who reported on-going non-formal learning. Throughout the sorting, I continued to ask myself, "How do I summarize this? what are the 'emerging conceptual categories?'" And, of course, none seemed to emerge.

It became clear that if an emerging theory were to include an explanation of the atypical cases, they were the people whom I should interview. (Glaser and Strauss call this process of selection "maximizing the differences.") This occasioned by first serious case of paralysis, and I successfully avoided starting the second stage of data collection by reading a variety of works on interviewing which engenered greater and greater fears that I would be unable to pull off even a mildly successful interview. This fear and hesitation is apparently almost epidemic among inexperienced researchers (except those who lack an appreciation of this limits of their abilities) and, I want to be quick to point out, is nearly always dispelled within moments after completing their first encounter with a "subject." Unlike survey respondents who frequently skip questions, misinterpret, misread or supply brief, ambiguous or otherwise unusable answers, if a person is willing to be interviewed, he very likely will be eager to talk, informative, reassuring, pleasant, and insightful. Researchers are sometimes amazed that they get answers to questions neither asked nor conceptualized, that responses lead to new avenues of exploration, and that they become almost intimate with some aspects of their subjects' experiences. Such was the case with me. As I kicked myslef for not starting my interviews sooner, I marveled at the wealth of information each yielded. Fortunately I was so entranced with the landscape that I put aside the problem of explaining what I was seeing.

My initial interviews followed a tentative structure. I had six questions which I wanted to be sure to cover and beyond that I was willing to flow with the conversation. I found it helpful to structure the encounter much like a conversation. I entered in, reacted to or questioned statements made, made statements and asked for a response. I neither used nor took notes. Each interview was tape recorded and later transcribed by student assistants. The literature is full of advice and cautions about this aspect of data collection. Whether to tape or take notes, to transcribe verbatim or summarize from recordings, to record impressions immediately, shortly thereafter or some time even later are, in my view, personal decisions to be based on factors as diverse as the resources at your disposal and your personal learning style. I happen to be blessed with a wonderful memory for verbatim conversation and I find it helpful to take notes on the tape several days after the interview. That time for reflection helps me decide what was important and what I want to listen for. Much later I used multiple copies of verbatim transcripts to document my emerging concepts.

Meanwhile, surveys continued to arrive. By the time I was up to 80 with 20 potential interviewees, I was again feeling frantic. I could see little relationship between data collected during these marvelous inerviews (I had conducted six) and these puzzling, idiosyncratic cups of fruit cocktail. I still had no idea what to do to explain the phenomenon using either data source, but now I had a very serious problem. It appeared quite possible that I would have nothing to say in Anaheim (I had been foolhardy enough, one year earlier, to submit a proposal to present my tentative findings which the conference planners had been foolhardy enough, I now believed, to accept). So my diversion and paralysis were short lived this time and gave way to tears. I had clearly reached a point where nothing else I knew how to do would help.

My tears brought back memories of a similar episode at my dining room table when, surrounded by computer printouts, input cards, statistics books and other incredibly unhelpful items, I sobbed that I didn't know how to do a dissertation. I had emerged from that catharsis ready simply to do the first logical step and not worry about the later steps. I did the same this time.

The first step, I believed, was to stop worrying about fancy words I didn't understand --words like "emerging conceptual categories." The next was to figure out what I knew about each of my questions. "What do I know about the form of continuing professional education of adult educators?" Stepping away from my data for a moment, I jotted some ideas down on cards. Loflund (1971) , who has provided cookbook-like suggestions for data management in a most helpful reference, would want me to tell you that they were unlined, 4 x 6 ", but that later I switched to posterboard. My ideas were rather unassuming: They do a lot; they do different things; they consider all kinds of learning related to professional growth. I generated dozens of similarly non-sophisticated statements and when I was finished, I asked a second question, "How do I know?" I again read through each questionnaire and transcript and listed supporting evidence on each card. Unsupported ideas were eliminated; overgeneralizations were qualified; redundant statements were combined; several ideas were synthesized into a more encompassing statement. A final check on what I now recognized as tentative theoretical explanations based on conceptual categories was to go through each interview and questionnaire to see if my proposed concepts did explain the form of continuing professional education for each individual. If not, it was further refined so as to explain all cases in my small sample.

Although I did not report it in Anaheim, I also began to formulate conceptual categories to explain the function and worth of continuing professional education. The procedure I used was slightly different, because the data were more indirect. When I asked myself "What do I know about the function of continuing professional education?" I answered, "Not much." Now being more comfortable paddling around in this well of data and far more confident of my ability to stay afloat, if not progress toward the objective, I retreated to neither paralysis, avoidance nor tears and instead dived into the data. On the questionnaires I had asked the respondents to rate the value of each learning activity they had identified on a scale of 1-5 and to provide a rationale for their rating. I had supposed that from this information I could infer something about the function and worth of the activities. I began to list each rationale statement on a card and when similar statements appeared, I grouped them. Eventually I was able to put tentative titles on each card and I finally reached a point where the statements on each new questionnaire fit onto a card already in existence (the categories were becoming saturated). One card, for example, lists items like "concepts were central to my work," "pulled ideas together," "too much theory," "too basic," "good papers," "I knew it already." These data suggest to me that one function of continuing professional education is that it provides information to the learner. Its worth seems to be judged by the learner at least partially on the basis of the extent to which that function is met (incidentally, this is only one of seven functions and one of five criteria for worth which I have identified). Determining the "fit" of these concepts to the data will be more complicated because even one learner may see different functions for different types of learning and may use varying criteria at different times (that, in itself, would be a tentative theoretical explanation to be tested).

Perhaps the most helpful activity during this stage of data analysis has been the task of writing the paper I presented in Anaheim. It seems clear that there must come a time when the researcher moves beyond note-taking. I happen to respond well to other-imposed deadlines and suspect that without one, I would still be smugly treading water rather than navigating toward the edge of the well. The literature suggests that periodic "memos" should be written in which tentative explanations are noted. My experience would point out the difficulty in trying to do so too soon, but possibly a self-imposed "stock-taking" memo written at specified intervals would indeed be helpful. Clearly, one could collect data forever, and if one waits too long to make sense of it, one may never emerge from the well.

In closing, let me return to the heretical assertion I made earlier: that an important part of this process is a personal immersion in and relationship with your research questions, your subjects, and your data. This need not mean abandoning a researcher's objective stance--I would argue that because of that commitment one feels, one is compelled to remain objective or destroy any chance of developing the systematic theory which will explain the phenomenon under examination. But without such a commitment and on-going relationship, the frustrations that give way to paralysis and diversion can become Satan-like tempters redirecting our focus and rendering us ineffectual.

As for the tears which accompany the process, I have no antidote to offer. Rather I would say, "Let 'em flow." Those tears, welling up with uncontrollable force, constantly remind us of our humanity with all its limitations and liabilities, a reminder which helps to prevent that greatest of all sins which the Greeks called hubris and today we call pride. Our pride tricks us into believing that we have learned all the answers, that our view of the world is the correct and truthful one and that we have arrived at our final destination. Once that happens, we stop searching and traveling, and there is every reason to believe that the cessation of the journey is always premature, regardless of when we allow it to happen or how certain we, with our limited viewpoint, are that we have indeed arrived.

So take along a box of Kleenex. Happy traveling. Peace be with you.

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COST EFFECTIVENESS OF THREE MULTI-MEDIA INSTRUCTION SYSTEMS FOR NUTRITION EDUCATION FOR RURAL AND URBAN AREAS

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Abstract

This study was designed to compare the cost effectiveness and capability of three multi-instruction systems for reaching and educating a maximum number of both rural and urban food stamp recipients. The systems compared a number of variables: program coverage, learning effectiveness, changes in food recalls and nutrition practices adopted, efficiency, and cost effectiveness.

Inflation, rising energy costs, and reduced purchasing power of budget allocations continued to reduce both the capacity and impact of the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP) in the Vermont and the Nevada Extension Services. The potential need for nutrition education was accelerating at a much faster rate than our capacity to provide it. In Vermont, the 1970 census indicated that 8,637 families were living below the poverty level. In 1979, over 17,000 families were receiving food stamps in Vermont and were eligible for the EFNEP program. During the same period of time it was necessary to reduce the number of EFNEP paraprofessional nutrition aides by 50 percent. In 1977 the Vermont EFNEP program had capacity to enroll only 400 new families per year. Assuming current levels of EFNEP funding the present geographic and demographic dispersion of Vermont food stamp families, it would have taken 40 years to reach the food stamp target population using the conventional one-to-one education system.

In 1977, the Extension Service, USDA, received funds from the Food and Nutrition Service to initiate EFNEP projects which would increase participation of food stamp families in EFNEP. Methods in addition to the conventional one-to-one approach were to receive priority attention.

The goal of the resulting Vermont-Nevada project "Good Food-Good Times" was to quadruple the number of food stamp recipients in the EFNEP program without substantially increasing the number of aides or other personnel. The project built upon the strengths of the current EFNEP system of teaching nutrition by trained nutrition aides, in addition to adding modern communication and educational technology. This enhanced the program's efficiency and expanded the capacity of the current EFNEP system.

Three multi-media nutrition systems were developed, implemented and evaluated in the two states.

System 1 Multi-media multi-dimensional Nutrition Instruction System. This system integrated television, direct mail mini-lessons, and telephonic instruction conducted by EFNEP nutrition aides.

System 2 Multi-media Nutrition Instruction System. This system consisted of television and direct mail mini-lessons with no direct contact by EFNEP aides, either by telephone or in person.

System 3 Conventional EFNEP Nutrition System. Direct one-to-one or small group instruction was provided by trained nutrition aides.

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The television components were added as results of previous studies. Kristiansson and Coffey (1978) had found that television brought about significant changes in nutrition behavioral practices among food stamp recipients, but no significant change in nutrition knowledge. Honnold and Kristiansson (1979) found that video tape lessons used with groups and individuals resulted in a substantial increase in knowledge and a high motivation to follow recommended practices.

The telephonic instruction and direct mail component were added to provide a more economic and energy-efficient way to disseminate supplemental and timely nutrition education to the diverse food stamp participants. Springer (1974) had measured the effectiveness of videotaped presentations linked to direct telecommunication with state specialists and reported a high acceptance of teaching methods and high motivation to follow recommended practices. Coffey (1978) and Nichols (1978) had found that direct mail lessons resulted in high acceptance by specialized audiences--young parents and pregnant women. Trent and Kinlaw (1976), North Carolina, listed the effectiveness of direct mail leaflets, circular letters and cartoon booklets in teaching nutrition to low-income consumers. The results showed significant changes in nutrition knowledge and practices.

The population of the study were food stamp recipients who had no previous exposure to the EFNEP program. In Vermont, 17,000 initial announcements were mailed out with 30 percent returning the enrollment card. Of these, 2,903 persons returned the pre-test and were formally enrolled in the program. In Nevada, 7,000 initial announcements were mailed out. Eighteen percent returned the cards and 670 persons returned the pre-tests and were formally enrolled in the program.

The persons who returned the pre-tests were divided into the three nutrition instruction systems. In Vermont, because of its rural nature, respondents who lived in 12 previously selected towns were designated for the direct teaching system. This was necessary to test out direct teaching in a practical, efficient manner under normal operation conditions using already trained nutrition aides. The ten-week educational program assessed the three instruction systems in relation to one another and a control group in both a rural (Vermont) and urban (Las Vegas) situation. Results by age and education were also assessed.

The three systems were compared relative to:

- Program coverage as determined by numbers reached and percent of potential audience reached by the project.
- Program effectiveness as determined by a comparison of pre- and post-tests scores relative to nutrition knowledge, changes in nutrition related practices and changes in food recall.
- Program costs as determined by computation of total costs of the three systems and comparison of total costs of each instruction system.
- Program efficiency as determined by the total program costs divided by the number of program families reached by the three systems.
- Program cost effectiveness as determined by a comparison of the cost per project participants to the program effectiveness indicators.

In the ten-week program evaluation, matching designs were used for each system and the control group both in Nevada and Vermont. In addition to the control group, each person served as his own control and was exposed to the pre-test and post-test at 10 week intervals.

To determine whether the percent of correct answers in pre-tests was significantly different from the post-tests for each system within a state, the uncorrected McNemar test for correlated proportions was used. (Williams, Aleong, et al., 1980 and Fleiss, 1973).

The estimated learning effectiveness (LE) was calculated for each system, using only the pre-test and post-test in both sets of data. The LE value calculations assume that the system can benefit only those participants who failed to get questions correct in the pre-test. The LE statistics, which were computed after a significant chi square by the McNemar test, provide a method of comparing the teaching effectiveness of the three instructional systems.

The pre- and post-test score differences in the percent correct answers on nutrition knowledge were tested for significant differences by the conventional least square analysis of variance F test. The General Linear Model (GLM) program in the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) (Halwig, J.T. et al., 1979) was used to obtain the analysis of variance.

The results relative to program coverage of the Vermont-Nevada Good Food-Good Times EFNEP program were positive. In Vermont, 30 percent of the potential audience and in Nevada, 18 percent of the potential audience were reached and motivated to get actively involved in the Extension nutrition program.

Program effectiveness evaluation showed a high learning effectiveness for all three systems in both rural and urban samples. Significant increases in nutrition knowledge, food recalls, and nutrition and shopping practices were recorded for all three instruction systems when compared with the control. Figure 1 data indicate the results of pre-tests and post-tests expressed in composite learning effectiveness (LE) values.

Figure 1. Significant Changes in Nutrition Knowledge

	System 1	System 2	System 3
Vermont	.4101*	.2340*	.6080*
Nevada	.2185*	.2070*	.3423*

* Significance at .001 level

The program cost and efficiency varied significantly for the three instructional systems. Figure 2 data indicate that the highest costs were recorded for System 3, where direct teaching was used with a small number of participants. In System 1, which combined television, direct mail and telephonic instruction, the costs were less than half of the System 3 costs in both states. In System 2, which combined television and direct mail only, the Vermont costs were almost one-sixth and Nevada costs one-third of those of System 3. The cost variation in the two states depended mainly on the participants which each system had the potential to reach.

Figure 2. Cost Comparison of the Three Instructional Systems

	System 1		System 2		System 3	
	No. Participants	Cost per participant	No. Participants	Cost per participant	No. Participants	Cost per participant
Vermont	757	$42.25	1,857	$19.15	154	$113.37
Nevada	262	$47.35	265	$35.06	51	$109.24

The cost effectiveness of the three systems showed that:

- System 2 (direct mail and television with no personal contacts by aides) resulted in the least cost per client. Significant learning and changes in nutrition practices and behavior did occur for the participants but not as substantial as either System 1 or System 3.
- System 1 (direct mail, television and telephonic instruction given by aides) resulted in somewhat higher cost per client. Significant learning and changes in nutrition practices and behavior did occur for the participants. The amount of learning effectiveness was higher than System 2 and lower than System 3.
- System 3 (direct teaching) showed the highest cost per client; however, when compared with Systems 1 and 2, generally System 3 showed significantly higher learning effectiveness particularly in cognitive changes.

In some cases, especially in Nevada results, there were some variations from the general trend, or no significant differences between the systems.

A further analysis indicated that there were no significant differences in system performance by age and education.

Even with the limitations of this study, it seems appropriate to conclude:

1. A well-designed and implemented multidimensional and multimedia intensive nutrition program such as "Good Food-Good Times" can effectively teach nutrition at an acceptable level to low-income families in both rural and urban settings at a lower cost than the conventional one-to-one or small group instruction system.
2. The conventional one-to-one or small group instruction (System 3) had the highest learning effectiveness; however, the costs were three times higher than for System 1 and three to five times higher than for System 2.
3. It would appear that some combination of all three systems in this project tailored to participants motivations, needs, educational levels, etc. would provide a more cost-effective way to reach more families with nutrition education than the one-to-one methods.

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THE GRAYING OF THE COLLEGE CLASSROOM: IMPACT OF OLDER STUDENTS AS PEERS ON ATTITUDES AND ON PERFORMANCE OF UNDERGRADUATES

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Abstract

This study was designed to determine whether the presence of older students in a regular college class would affect attitudes and performance of the younger students in the class, and whether attitudes of the older students would change. Younger students' attitudes toward their own aging process and toward intergenerational classes became significantly more positive; their attitude toward older people as a group, positive at the start, did not change. The older students' already positive attitudes toward intergenerational classes, younger people as a group, and their own capacity for learning did not change. The presence of older people had no effect on the performance of the younger students.

PURPOSE

Because each succeeding cohort of older persons is better educated than the last, older people who enroll in future college classes may be expected to demand less of the traditionally recreational and separate adult education curriculum and more of the intellectual rigors of the regular college classes. Research on the effects of intergenerational classes on attitudes and performance of younger undergraduates may provide educators with data to help them plan for the changing student population.

This study was designed to help us learn whether the presence of older students in a regular college classroom would affect attitudes and performance of the younger students in the class, and whether attitudes of the older students would be affected by their participation in such a class. Within this broad purpose, we had several specific objectives. We wished to learn:

1. Whether participating in an intergenerational class, containing an approximately even mix of 18- and 19-year-old second-semester college freshmen and over-60-year-old, nonmatriculating, for-credit students, and in which the life cycle theme was used as an approach to composition and literature, would influence younger students' attitudes toward aging, toward older people as a group, and toward intergenerational classes;

2. Whether participation in such a class would affect the older students' attitudes toward intergenerational classes, younger people as a group, and their own capacity for learning in a college environment;

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3. Whether this intergenerational class makeup would affect the performance of younger students in class discussions and on written essays.

A secondary interest of the study was to learn whether, in a class composed entirely of 18- and 19-year-old college freshmen, the students' attitudes toward their own aging and toward older people as a group would be changed after they had participated in a composition and literature course in which the life cycle theme was used.

Because the study was designed to teach us something about what happens when younger and older students study together as peers, it was critical that no effort be made to create a "positive" series of contacts that might bias the results. We measured changes in attitudes not as a result of any treatment intended specifically to change attitudes, but as a result rather of two treatments that may or may not have affected students' attitudes:

1. The course in composition and literature was primarily that--a freshman English course in which the instructor used the life cycle theme as a key for unlocking discussion and writing topics inherent in the literature. The course was not designed to be either informational or attitude-changing.

2. The placement of ten older adults as for-credit students in a regular second-semester freshman English class was not designed to be a "positive" experience for the younger students. The older students were selected, from among twenty-five scholarship applicants, because their writing skills and level of formal education approximated those of freshmen entering the second semester.

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

In a pretest-treatment-posttest design, two treatment groups were enrolled separately in the two experimental sections of second semester freshman English described above: one an intergenerational class made up of fourteen 18- and 19-year-old Lehigh University freshmen and ten non-matriculating, for-credit students 60 and over; the other a regular all-freshman class. Both sections studied composition and literature, with the theme of the life cycle used as a central approach. The control group consisted of three other sections of the same course, all Lehigh freshmen, but without the superimposition of the life cycle theme.

We used a Student Opinion Questionnaire containing five separate scales to measure the attitude changes of younger students toward their own aging, older people as a group, and intergenerational classes, as well as attitude changes of older students toward intergenerational classes, younger people as a group, and their own capacity for learning in a college class. The questionnaire uses a modified version of the Kogan O.P. scale format[2]. Six items are borrowed directly from the Kogan O.P. scale; all others are original to this study.

The mean amounts of activity (participation, whispering, eye contact, and laughter) per 75-minute class period in the two experimental classes were compared to determine whether there was any difference in amount and type of activity, and whether individual younger students in the intergenerational group participated more or less than their counterparts in the all-freshman section.

We analyzed the improvement in performance on essays written by younger students in the two experimental classes to determine whether the younger students in the intergenerational class showed more or less improvement over the semester than their counterparts in the all-freshman class.

In addition, both the instructor and an observer kept diaries on student interaction and quality of class discussions. The observer tape-recorded all sessions of the two experimental groups and interviewed students from the intergenerational class after the end of the semester. We have used information gathered through these means to help interpret the experimental results and to make observations on the intergenerational class.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

(a) Analysis of Student Opinion Questionnaire

Analyses of responses to the five scales of the questionnaire were intended to answer eight specific questions, each of which is cited here with its scale.

Scale 1: Younger Students' Attitude Toward Their Own Aging:

(1) Will the attitude of college freshmen toward their own aging be more positive after they have participated for a semester in an intergenerational class in which the theme of the life cycle is used as an approach to composition and literature?

(2) Will the attitude of freshmen toward their own aging be more positive after they have participated for a semester in a regular college class, with students of their own age, in which the life cycle theme is used?

The freshmen in the intergenerational class showed significant changes in the positive direction toward their own aging. The all-freshman experimental class showed no change, nor did the control group.

Scale 2: Younger Students' Attitude Toward Older People as a Group:

(1) Will the college freshmen's attitude toward older people as a group be more positive after they have participated for a semester in an intergenerational class in which the life cycle theme is used as an approach to composition and literature?

(2) Will the college freshmen's attitude toward older people as a group be more positive after they have participated for a semester in a similar class, but with students of their own age?

Although the scores of the freshmen in the intergenerational class rose slightly more than the scores in the other groups, the change did not reach statistical significance. Scores were high at the beginning of the semester; the posttest seems to indicate that an already positive attitude simply remained positive. The experimental all-freshman group showed no change.

Scale 3: Students' Attitude Toward Intergenerational Classes:

(1) Will the college freshmen's attitude toward intergenerational classes be more positive after they have participated for a semester in an intergenerational class in which the theme of the life cycle is used as an approach to composition and literature?

(2) Will the older students' attitude toward intergenerational classes be more positive after they have participated in this class?

While no significant change occurred in the older students' attitude, the attitude of the younger students became significantly more positive. It is not surprising that the older students' attitude did not change; it was so positive at the start that scores could not move very far in the positive direction.

Scale 4: Older Students' Attitude Toward Younger People as a Group:

Will the older students' attitude toward younger people as a group be more positive after they have participated for a semester in an intergenerational class in which the life cycle theme is used as an approach to composition and literature?

We found no change in the already very positive attitude of older students toward younger people as a group.

Scale 5: Older Students' Attitude Toward Their Own Success in a College Class:

- Will the older students' attitude toward their own success in a college class be more positive after they have participated in this class?

The older students' anticipation that they would do well was extremely high at the start of the semester, and the posttest showed no significant change.

(b) Analysis of Observations

Analysis of observations recorded with the coding system were intended to answer two basic questions:

(1) Will the amount and nature of class activity (participation, whispering, eye contact, and laughter) be different in the two experimental groups?

(2) In the intergenerational class, will the older students "take over"? That is, will they participate so much that they prevent the younger students from participating at as high a rate as their counterparts in the experimental all-freshman group?

In response to the first question, we compared the following for the two experimental classes:

- Means for the amounts of participation and whispering per student per 75-minute class, and
- Means for the numbers of instances of group laughter per 75-minute class.

Eye contact without whispering occurred so infrequently in both classes that we could not measure it. The rates of participation (talking aloud), whispering, and laughter in the intergenerational class were significantly higher than in the all-freshman class.

In response to the second question, we compared the mean amounts of participation per freshman per 75-minute class in the two experimental groups. We found no significant difference between the two scores. We also found no significant difference in a comparison of two specific types of activity: direct interaction among students during discussion and students' adding to what their classmates said in discussion. We concluded that the greater activity of the older students accounted for the difference in total activity between the two classes but that it did not prevent the younger students in the mixed group from participating at as high a rate as their counterparts in the all-freshman group.

(c) Analysis of Younger Students' Performance on Written Essays

With this analysis, we intended to determine whether the essays of younger students in the intergenerational class would show more or less improvement than those of students in the all-freshman experimental group. We found that while the increase in grade point given by three independent graders was greater in the intergenerational class, the difference was not significant. We concluded that the presence of older students did not have any effect on the level of improvement exhibited by the freshmen.

IMPLICATIONS

We believe that the results of this study have important implications for educators. First, younger students can benefit in several ways from contact with older students in the classroom. Their anticipation of aging can be modified to the point where they see themselves in the future as capable, energetic, and admired older people. To the extent that people fulfill their own prophesies, such an attitude change could make for more successful aging in terms of self-concept. Their changed attitude toward intergenerational classes indicates that this experience was a highly positive one for the young students and implies that intergenerational classes may be better accepted by all students than university administrators expect.

Second, that the amount of activity in the intergenerational class was greater than in the all-freshman class indicates a high interest level. While the instructor "felt" that this class was livelier and therefore easier to teach, the data actually show significant differences in the kinds of class activity that make a discussion class successful: direct interaction between students during discussion, students making comments that add to what other students have just said, the simple answering of questions, and laughter. Instructors who use a discussion format should welcome older students, who seem actually to help stimulate productive interaction.

Third, the myth that older students will somehow take away learning opportunity from younger students appears to be rebuked by evidence from this study. Younger students in the intergenerational class participated at the same rate as their counterparts in the all-freshman class. Indeed, although the difference is not statistically significant, the direct interaction and adding to discussion per student per class session was slightly higher here than in the all-freshman class. And the fact that freshmen in the intergenerational class improved their performance on written essays by at least as much as their fellow freshmen in the other experimental group shows that they certainly were not harmed in any tangible way.

Fourth, even the test results that show no significant change are important to note. In the pretest, the younger students' attitude toward older people as a group was more positive than expected; their failure to change may indicate that a high regard for older people was reinforced. Likewise, the older students' attitudes toward intergenerational classes, younger people as a group, and their own capacity for learning started high and did not change significantly. These attitudes should imply to educators that older and younger students alike may be more favorably disposed to studying together than is often assumed. The idea that older people should be given separate, non-credit, simplified courses certainly did not appeal to these ten older students.

And, finally, a look at the grades earned by the older students shows that they performed just as capably as their younger classmates. The average final grade of the freshmen in the intergenerational class was "B"; the average of the older students was the same. Perhaps educators have been underestimating the capacity of older persons for formal learning.

The findings of this study should provide a challenge to educators who wish to provide stimulating courses for both young and old. While some courses designed especially for older adults are probably necessary, educators need to think more of older people as a part of the clientele for regular college classes, particularly those in which discussion is used as a primary teaching technique. The exchange between generations does more than help older and younger students understand each other; it provides a stimulating atmosphere for learning in which the benefits accrue not only to the older but to the younger students as well.

SOURCES OF STRESS ENCOUNTERED BY ADULTS ENROLLED IN A STATEWIDE MSW DEGREE PROGRAM

Richard A. Kalus
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Abstract

This study was specially designed to: 1) determine the primary source of stress encountered when practitioners/adults return to school, and 2) determine the kinds of support services necessary to resolve most of the obstacles. The areas of stress that were studied include family, financial, academic, personal, and employment. As expected, the adults in the off-campus program encountered more sources of stress than the students in the regular program. The adults experienced significantly more academic, financial, career and job-related, and family stresses. However, they were similar in the areas of personal and interpersonal stresses.

Stress, as defined by Hans Selye (1974), is "the generalized, nonspecific response of the body to any demand made on it." Students entering a graduate program have many demands made upon them. They not only must successfully meet the academic requirements of the programs, but they must pay for their education, make adjustments in the allocation of their time, and still meet their family, financial, and social obligations. Swagger (1981) stated that "stress is the result of unsuccessful coping while Erickson (1959) thought that adult life is marked by various stages in which individuals confront and resolve life's tasks, resulting in stress which is directly related to one's stage in the life cycle. Adults who enter part-time and combination off- and on-campus programs must cope with the demands made upon them. However, schools offering such programs can help the adult learner face the challenges before them.

Since 1975, the School of Social Work in cooperation with the Office of the Associate Vice President for Public Service and the Extramural Office has offered a graduate degree program for social work practitioners and other selected individuals in different communities throughout the state of Illinois. The program reduces the amount of time adults are required to spend in full-time residence by using a combination of off-campus and on-campus instruction. Students take four to six evening courses in their community, come on campus for one semester of full-time study, and return to their community for two semesters of internship.

METHOD

The Delphi Method was used to identify the stresses that students encounter when enrolled in a graduate social work program. MSW students at the University of Illinois were asked to identify the stresses that they were currently experiencing. Students in all phases of the program--off-campus, on-campus, and field placement--identified the stresses. These items of stress were compiled into a list and students were asked to review the list and make any new additions. After this list was developed, the 64 items were categorized into six distinct categories that included academic demands, financial demands, family demands, interpersonal stresses, personal stresses, and job and career demands.

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The 64 items of stress were incorporated into a questionnaire and respondents were instructed to rate each item along a five point scale ranging from not stressful (1) to very stressful (5). In addition, the respondents were asked several questions which garnered demographic information. The respondents were adults, enrolled in courses, in each phase of the program. The courses were those which represented a cross-section of the student body. In all, 82 adults responded to the questionnaire and, of these, 45 were in the combined off- and on-campus degree program (the R Program) and 37 in the regular MSW on-campus program.

After the data were collected, each item in each scale was analyzed to assure that it was internally consistent with all other items in the scale. This procedure included computing an item-total correlation and eliminating items with a correlation coefficient of less than .3. The item analysis eliminated six items of stress, resulting in the academic demands scale (ADS) to consist of eight items of stress; the family demands scale (FDS) 10; the financial demands scale (FINS) 11; the interpersonal stresses scale (ISS) 6; the personal stresses scale (PSS) 14; and the job and career demands scale (JCDS) 9. These scales were then added together to form a total stress scale (TSS). The adults enrolled in the combined off and on-campus program were compared with the students enrolled in the campus program on the scales.

FINDINGS

Of the 82 respondents, 83 percent were female and 17 percent male. The age ranged from 22 years to 50 years, with a mean of 29.6. Most (43%) were married; 40 percent were never married; 11 percent were divorced or separated; and 6 percent had other living arrangements. The family incomes were relatively low with one-third of the students having a family income of less than $10,000 per year and one-half having less than $15,000. Only 27 percent had undergraduate majors in social work, while 17 percent had undergraduate degrees in psychology, 13 percent in sociology, and the remaining 43 percent in a variety of other majors.

No significant differences were found between the ages, the sex, or the undergraduate majors of the R students and the campus MSW students. However, the R students were more often married, divorced, and separated than the campus students and had more dependents. The R students also had significantly more years of social work experience and had higher family incomes.

For all respondents, graduate social work education was stressful. The financial requirements of the program were the most stressful since 8 of the 11 items of financial stress had mean ratings of 3.0 or higher. The interpersonal stress items also received high ratings. Of the six items of interpersonal stresses, three had ratings of 3.0 or higher. Table 1 shows the items of most stress. It can be seen that the costs of graduate education with the loss of income from changes in employment and the demands made upon an individual's time creates significant amounts of stress.

TABLE 1

Items of Most Stress
(n=82)

ITEM	SCALE	MEAN (5 point scale)
Availability of personal time	PSS	3.8
Loss of Income	FINS	3.7
Availability of leisure time	PSS	3.7
Competing demands between academic expectations and social activities	ISS	3.6
Cost of Education	FINS	3.6
Availability of study time	ADS	3.6
Amount of rest time	PSS	3.5
Time for significant other	ISS	3.4
Borrowing money for education	FINS	3.2
Cost of relocating	FINS	3.2
Cost of housing	FINS	3.1
Interruption of employment	JCDS	3.1
Formulation of career alternatives	JCDS	3.1
Change in social contacts	ISS	3.1
Cost of transportation	FINS	3.0
Changes in standard of living	FINS	3.0

The 45 R students averaged 162 on the total stress scale while the 37 campus students averaged 135. Therefore, the R students experienced significantly more stress in the MSW program than the campus students (t=3.61, df=80, p=.001). The R students were also more stressed by the family demands (t=4.51, df=80, p<.001); the job and career demands (t=2.83, df=80, p=.006); the academic demands (t=2.39, df=80, p=.019); and the financial demands (t=2.13, df=80, p=.036). However, there were no significant differences found between the two groups regarding the personal and interpersonal stresses which they had.

IMPLICATIONS

The findings demonstrated that all persons in graduate social work education experience stress which gets manifested in all aspects of their lives. More importantly, however, the findings demonstrated that adults enrolled in a combination off- and on-campus graduate program encounter greater stresses than those who enroll as regular full-time campus students. Recognizing these increased stress levels, schools must try to prevent, minimize, and alleviate the stresses of the adults if the programs are to be successful and meet the educational objectives of the university and the professional community. Schools offering part-time and combination off- and on-campus programs to adults have to incorporate three important principles into their programs. These include, commitment, information, and support.

Commitment consists of schools having a mission to provide a quality program of study equal to that of the campus program. This includes the use of campus faculty, similar admission requirements and identical course offerings. The schools must also be responsible for establishing an on-going program of two-way communication and information to students, agencies, and field instructors to explain the goals, requirements, expectations, and the stresses of the program. Finally, schools need to provide support services and resources for students, faculty, and agencies to reduce some of the major stresses while maintaining the quality of the program.

The School of Social Work at the University of Illinois has incorporated a number of policies to address these principles and to help adults reduce their stress and succeed in the program. The school has:

1. Implemented an adult counseling program.
2. Increased the number of library resources available to adults.
3. Instituted a Continuing Education Committee to monitor and evaluate the progress of the program.
4. Established a toll-free telephone number for advisement, consultation, and information.
5. Conducted meetings to explain the requirements, to discuss the program, and inform adults of potential stresses and obstacles.
6. Established linkages with agencies to obtain their support of the program and enhance the participation of their staff.
7. Utilized the Regional Offices as a broker between the students and the school.
8. Sponsored support groups composed of graduates, agency personnel, and current students.
9. Conducted conferences and workshops as a means of increasing professionalism and sustaining community support for the program.
10. Utilized teaching in the program as regular part of a full-time faculty member's load and provided transportation, support services, and incentives to the instructors.

Even though the school has made a commitment to life long learning of adults in their communities, these adults still experience the stress of graduate education. Adults try to balance the academic and financial demands of graduate education with the family, professional, and social obligations. With the commitment, support, and information from the school, stress has been reduced and adults have been able to successfully complete the program and embark on rewarding professional careers.

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AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF SELF DIRECTED LEARNING AS AN INSTRUCTIONAL/CURRICULUM STRATEGY

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Abstract

This exploratory study examined the impact of a graduate course which embraced both a cognitive examination of self-directed learning as well as the implementation of the Knowles' format for learning contract as a curriculum structure for the course.

The current literature of lifelong learning emphasizes the significance of mathetics, "learning how to learn". Knowles and Tough have provided key background supports for a broad perspective of structures and processes of self-directed learning. There have begun research efforts to determine the characteristics of self-directed learners as correlated with self-concept, cognitive or sociopsychological factors (Heimstra, 1981). There also has been situation-specific and person-specific self-reports of appropriate and effective strategies in the development of self-directed behavior (Knowles, 1977; Boud, 1981). However, there is minimal knowledge regarding the effective development and operationalizing of self-directed learning skills for a group of adult learners. As noted by Combs, Avila and Purky:

> . . . Learning is the discovery of meaning. The problem of learning, modern psychologists tell us, always involves two aspects: one is the acquisition of new knowledge or experience. the other has to do with the individual's personal discovery of the meaning of information for him. The provision of information can be controlled by an outsider with or without the cooperation of the learner. It can even be done, when necessary, by mechanical means which do not require a person at all. The discovery of meaning, however, can only take place in people and cannot occur without the involvement of persons (1971, p. 21).

Adult educators espouse the significance of creating environments, educating for knowledge and skills, and providing assessment strategies, which legitimizes and maximizes self-directed learner behavior. Yet what models of instructor/facilitator, and student behaviors are more effective in the transition focus from an external authority (other)-directed to intrinsic empowerment (self)-directed learning behavior. Specifically, is the Knowles' "model of self-directed learning" format structure and process a favorable instructional strategy for development of self-directed behavior?

This study utilized a specifically designed graduate course of 15 weeks' length to examine one model of development of self-directed knowledge and behavior. A graduate course titled, "Methods and Techniques of Adult Education" was designed as the curriculum structure incorporating the Knowles self-directed format and learning contract procedures was conducted during Summer Semester of 1979. This trial with quasi-control groups was used to refine operational activities, examine the major concerns of a cross-section of "naive" students to a new approach to learning and to minimize the potential of a Hawthorne

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effect or self-fulfilling prophecy artifact. The exploratory study included the course offered both in Spring Semester of 1980 and in Spring Semester of 1981.

The course was opened to all interested graduate students. The Spring Semester of 1980 began with 24 enrolled in the course and ended with 19 completers; the Spring Semester of 1981 began with 17 sutdents enrolled and ended with 14 completers. There was significant variability in the participant composition of the two courses, thus making it unfeasible for comparative class analysis.

To assess the potential impact of the course, students were tested on the Self-directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS) instrument at the entry and exit of the course (Guglielmino, 1978). Due to the small samples and the widely disparate scores, the scores were analyzed by t-test on gain score differences. Observational diaries were kept by the facilitator and two selected students in each of the courses. Content analysis of the diaries was conducted during Summer of 1981 to examine congruency and incongruency between themes and differing perceptions regarding facilitator and student behavior with relation to the course. This experiment was conducted according to a time line analysis. A third form of data to examine impact came from course evaluations given at the final class session. Students completed an in-class course evaluation, specifically reporting their perceptual assessments of themselves as more effective self-directed learners and of the course as an effective learning strategy.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The t-test analyses for the 1980 and 1981 courses noted significant differences between pre- and post-assessment scores on the SDLRS. For the 1980 course, the t-test analysis noted 7.45 (p .001 level, df = 18). The 1981 course had a t-test of 1.97 (p .05 level, df = 13). These findings suggest that there were significant changes between the entry and the exit of students in the course. Entry and exit scores did not show significant differences in relation to master or doctoral candidate status, age or academic major. There was only a minor correlation between self-report of prior self-directed learning and entry scores.

In examining the responses on the course evaluation, seven questions were judged to represent key areas of reaction to the self-directed learning process and curriculum. Of the combined 33 returned student evaluation forms, the majority of the respondents did note significant support and commitment to future opportunities in self-directed learning graduate courses. However, approximately one quarter of the students found the course as being significantly "difficult." With this same response group, there was also noted that they "would probably not choose another self-directed learning course." It is presumptuous to state a direct impact of the Knowles format and learning contract upon student's self-directed learning behavior. The lack of a direct causal relation can be due to the "volunteer, self-selected" nature of the enrolled students, the difficulty in establishing an adequate matched control group, and the inherent problems of multiple contaminates introduced through other graduate courses and life experiences. However in these particular courses, there were noted perceptual beliefs by students regarding the impact of the course. Of the four evaluation questions which examined components of the learning contract or self-directed learning skills, the strongest support was noted in the improved awareness of collaborative support and learning through the inquiry group. Other items in descending order of highest agreement and developed competency were the ability to validate the learning experiences, the skill in self-defining of learning activities and resources and lastly the skill to self-diagnose learning needs. In examining these responses, there were no significant differences in the responses between master's and doctoral candidate students.

In the content analysis of the diaries, varied themes emerged. These themes represented statements and behavior often noted by other prior instructional facilitators who had applied the self-directed learning concepts to their courses of instruction (Boud, 1981). To provide a framework to analyze these aspects of this process-oriented course, the "Teacher Concerns" model, developed by Fuller and Bown (1975), was used. The Fuller and Bown model was generated from ethnographic research to identify and describe three phases or clusters of concerns experienced by teachers as they move from novices to competent practitioners. These three areas include: 1) Self Concerns -- (During this early phase the dominant concern is about self, one's adequacy and survival; it focuses on areas of a "nonteaching nature"); 2) Task Concerns -- (During this phase, the teacher is trying to perform well and is concerned about perfecting skills and mastering content; there are also concerns about the frustrations of the situation which gives constraint or provides inadequate resources); and 3) Impact Concerns -- (This last phase is concerned about the kinds of outcomes and the desirability and appropriateness of these outcomes in relation to the task).

In evaluating the diaries, a majority of the class members reported Phase One - Self Concerns for at least the first half of the semester course. Key themes expressing these concerns included statements of anxiety or displeasure regarding lack of external or authority structure, fear of failure surrounding the contract, lack of self-confidence or risk-taking in self-directed inquiry. A few expressed wonderment/amazement regarding their own opportunity for personal learning goal pursuit within a credit course.

Approximately 8 of the students typified Phase Two -- Concern for Task during the first four weeks. These students reported prior experiences with self-directed learning, prior class experiences with the instructor/facilitator, or appeared to be very self-confident, assured in pursuing a new approach to learning. Approximately one-third of the combined group appeared to shift from Phase One to Phase Two in the latter half of the course. Key themes at this point of class noted a change, a shift or an insight regarding self-confidence, pride, perceived value/knowledge/skill from the course experience. These individuals reported their changed perceptions regarding their focus on the contract development to their focus on learning. Although frustration/anxious concern was evident earlier in the course for these individuals, verbal statements of insight, pride or accomplishment, and generation of potential application was noted. Individuals in this phase appeared to be the most verbally enthusiastic about the learning experience of the groupings.

Only five individuals reported themes which related to Phase Three -- Concerns for Impact. These individuals appeared to enter the course at the Phase Two Level, or quickly shift into a Phase Two level early in the course. At the fourth week of the course these individuals were noting Phase Three concerns. Key themes included designing learning contracts to more clearly meet defined personal learning needs, to facilitate long-term learning goals, and to have a holistic sense of the process in relation to design for learning and time management. These individuals also presented the most organized, logically presented and coherent portfolio of learning experiences and processes/products.

From this exploratory study, the Knowles model was of value to the majority of graduate students in their development of self-directed learning knowledge and skill. A majority of the students reported favorable evaluations of the course, the learning experiences and the skills development. A significant majority of the participants reported positive gains in the SDLR scale. Thus, one could state from the exploratory study that the Knowles format can be a highly effective instructional curriculum strategy. However, approximately one-fifth of the students noted negative gain scores from the SDLR scale and approximately one-quarter of the students noted they would probably not choose another self-directed learning course. No instructor appreciates or desires the negative impact of a learning strategy and course. What could be several potential variables of significance?

1) Basic writing and oral communication skills. Although one presumes all graduate students have an adequate background, the facilitator discovered several students who lacked sufficient language skills -- both foreign as well as native born students. For some, the lack of adequate skills significantly impeded them from defining their learning

objectives, created serious difficulties in locating and using resources and in their development of appropriate learning outcomes.

2) Abstract or conceptual cognitive ability. Although learning contracts and self-directed learning allows for a variety of learning strategies, the facilitator worked with several students who could not conceptualize the overall contract or learning plan, could not specify learning objectives and were solely oriented to learning by reading chapters and articles for basic information. Perry's cognitive development model and Widick & Simpson model applications (1978) brought new insight's regarding these varied students as they dealt with a nonexternally imposed structure, and with personally defined conceptual structures of learning experiences. The Perry model, drawing upon the Kohlberg stages of moral development, notes that learners pass through a series of sequential stages which represent qualitatively different structures or sets of assumptions about knowledge and value. Individuals who are at varied stages of development have different views of the nature of knowledge and, to some extent, reflect those differences in their ways of learning. In a general sense, individuals move from a simplistic, absolute stance vis-a-vis knowledge and values to a complex, pluralistic perspective. As noted by the Widick and Simpson discussions, students can improve through learning activities which are specifically designed for their movement into higher positions of the cognitive development hierarchy. Facilitators must create gradations of learning contracts for students in a dualistic position and/or concrete operations. Also, learning experiences, particularly at the graduate level, must facilitate student cognitive development to a relativistic position and hopefully to a "commitment in relativism" position.

3) Learning style. Typically, learning style refers to the manner most suited for information processing by individual learners. The facilitator did not find the Witkin model or the Kolb & Fry model of significant aid in analyzing student differences. The facilitator did observe two distinctions regarding the affective and self-confidence areas of an individual as they approached the learning task. The facilitator observed that students who had reported great comfort in didactic lectures and research paper-oriented courses had significant difficulty dealing with interpersonal relations and collaborative efforts with inquiry groups. These individuals appeared to have not developed a sense of comfort with their affective side of the learning process. They chose more "isolate" oriented activities. This course appeared to create a sense of personal confrontation with affective, interpersonal elements in a life learning situation.

Secondly, the facilitator observed that students who had the most difficulty with the contract and self-directed learning approach appeared to lack self-confidence, had difficulty with risk-taking, and lacked a sense of curiosity about potential learning goals. Although these characteristics could have a detrimental effect upon learning activities and outcomes, it also appeared that those students who had a very supportive inquiry group, or who utilized skills to gain assistance and support from class peers or facilitators tended to be able to surmount part of these characteristics and their concomitant difficulties. Those students who could not or did not involve themselves with others accomplished superficial learning activities.

This exploratory study both supported the favorable impact of the Knowles model, as well as noting its simplistic application to extremely diversified learners. Future research and instructional development should examine varied positions of cognitive development, aspects of learning style, and the impact of underdeveloped skill components in self-directed learning.

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A STUDY OF THE SELF-DIRECTED CONTINUED PROFESSIONAL LEARNING ACTIVITIES OF MEMBERS OF THE ILLINOIS NURSES ASSOCIATION

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Abstract

The purposes of this study were to (1) obtain information on the content and process of self-directed continued professional learning in nursing, and (2) assess the applicability of the Knox model (1973) of life-long self-directed continued learning in nursing. Information is presented in this paper on the learning activities, and to a lesser extent on the subject matter, of nurses' self-directed continued learning. The Knox model was proposed for use in this study because of its consistency with the goals of continuing education in nursing and its potential use in defining self-directed study in its relationship to the systems of cotinuing nursing education.

Self-directed learning is a frequently used mode of continued professional learning in nursing. However, the lack of a greater understanding of its content and process is a major deterrent in the profession's promotion of this mode of learning as a means of continuing education, and in the provision of learning resources and services to self-directed continuing learners. It has also led to the difficulty in defining self-directed continued learning in its relationship to the purposes, process and systems of continuing education in nursing.

METHOD OF STUDY

The method of study was descriptive survey. A two-part questionnaire was developed for use as the survey instrument. Part I of the instrument was designed to obtain information on the content of self-directed continued learning in nursing, specifically in relation to (1) the content areas studied, (2) the perceived effectiveness of self-directed study in learning the content areas, and (3) the reason for using self-directed rather than other-directed learning in the study of a content area.

Part II of the instrument was designed to obtain information on the activities of self-directed continued learning, and to assess the applicability of the Knox model to self-directed continued learning in nursing. The model was used as a basis for identifying present and desired activities of self-directed continued learning. Part II consisted of an item universe of 114 activities which were extrapolated from the following five major interrelated components of the Knox model:

1. identification of gaps between actual and criterion performance (Needs),
2. awareness of the setting in its relationship to continuing education (Setting),
3. selection and organization of educational objectives (Objectives),
4. selection and organization of learning activities (Learning Activities), and
5. the extent to which the learning activities met expectations (Evaluation).

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Thirteen of the 114 activities identified related to the component Needs, 10 to Setting, 9 to Objectives, 73 to Learning Activities, and 9 to Evaluation. The 73 activities related to the component Learning Activities were organized according to activities specifying:

1. how a method of learning is selected;
2. what particular learning activities are conducted, including activities involving
   a. learner interaction with materials and machines, and
   b. learner interaction with one or more other persons;
3. where materials for learning are obtained;
4. who provides assistance to the learner in learning;
5. where learning activities are conducted; and
6. what other-directed learning activities are used to supplement self-directed activities.

The 73 activities were intended to reflect the behaviors, persons, places and objects involved in conducting a learning activity or series of activities in self-directed continued learning in nursing.

Item-population sampling was used in the development and administration of Part II of the instrument. The questionnaire was administered by mail to a random sample of members of the Illinois Nurses' Association. The 267 respondents represented all major fields of employment, job positions and clinical areas in nursing. They also varied in their educational background in nursing, chronological age and number of years since graduation from a basic nursing program.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The content of the nurses' self-directed continued learning in nursing included subject matter related to the nursing process, interrelated processes, professional concerns and supporting sciences and disciplines. They tended to study content areas that could maintain or further their expertise and competency in their clinical area. There also appeared to be a tendency to study content areas associated with the knowledge and skills useful to, or necessary for, functioning in a particular role or setting. The bases for the nurses' use of self-directed, rather than other-directed, learning in the study of a content area were an individual preference for self-directed study, the presence of a programming problem which prevented attendance, and reasons indicated by the response "Other." The respondents indicated that a program offered at an inconvenient time/place was the most frequently encountered programming problem, followed by the problems of a program not oriented to their needs, unawareness of a program offered in a content area and prohibitive cost of a program. The frequency with which each of these problems was selected varied with the particular content area studied. The nurses' perceived effectiveness of self-directed study in learning a content area also varied with the content area studied. The findings suggest associations between frequency of study and perceived effectiveness of study of a content area, perceived effectiveness of study and preference for self-directed study as a mode of learning a content area, and perceived effectiveness of study and relevancy of the content area to the nurses' practice setting.

The study findings indicate that the nurses conducted activities related to the five major components of the Knox model in their self-directed continued learning. That is, they identified their learning needs, considered environmental influences in learning, set learning objectives and goals and evaluated their learning. On the basis of the item respondents' indicated frequency of performance of activities, the self-directed continued learning of the nurses could be described as follows. Learning needs are most often assessed by using methods involving consultation with peers and self-appraisal. The criterion or standard of performance used in assessment is the level of performance of a more experienced colleague or a more knowledgeable practitioner. Activities occurring in the nurses' work setting serve as a major motivator in their continued learning, and they can identify personal and material resources in the setting which can assist them in their learning. The factor receiving the most consideration in setting objectives for learning is the needs of those under the professional's care or direction (as clients, staff, students). Objectives related to immediate needs to improve professional performance are more often set than those related to future career goals. The self-directed learning of the respondents is a goal-directed process. Their predominant learning activities are informal discussion with peers and reading. Learning materials are obtained from resources in the employing agency, and the nurse most often receives assistance in her learning from a person in the work setting, particularly a peer or co-worker. To supplement their self-directed learning, the nurses attend in-service or staff development programs in the place of employment. The nurses more often participate in this type of program than in any other other-directed learning activity. Assistance in evaluating self-directed continued learning is sought from co-workers and those under the nurse's care or direction.

A certain pattern of learning within the process of self-directed continued learning was identified. The pattern consists of the more frequent performance of those activities which rely on personal and material resources in the nurses' work setting for their implementation. This pattern appears to be followed consistently in the performance of activities related to all five major components of the model process. It is also evident in the nurses' selection of other-directed learning activities to supplement their self-study.

More than 83 percent of the respondents indicated they spent at least one hour per week in self-directed continued learning. Of these, nearly 30 percent indicated they spent at least six hours per week in learning. The finding suggests that for most respondents, self-directed learning is conducted on a regular basis, and may also suggest that their learning is continuous rather than episodic.

The findings of the study indicate a need, or desire, for resources and/or assistance in self-directed learning by the nurses. Item respondents indicated that 111 of the 114 activities of the model were viewed as desirable, or would be performed more often if resources and/or assistance were available. The frequency of performance of the activities would be increased significantly ($\underline{p}$ .05 or less) if resources and/or assistance were provided. The activities that they indicated they would perform more frequently included those involving the use of personal and material resources outside their work setting, and the use of resources which were not often in current use. The nurses' patterns of self-directed learning may be altered, then, if such resources and/or assistance were made available to them in their self-directed continued learning. The findings also suggest the presence of problematic areas in learning, as difficulty in evaluating self-directed learning was indicated by the finding that the activity of devising a way to measure outcomes in learning would be increased significantly ($\underline{p}$ .005) if resources and/or assistance were available.

The study findings suggest that the five major components of the model were related to both the performed and the desired learning activities in the respondents' self-directed continued learning. The findings further suggest that the relationship between the model of self-directed learning activities and the learner-perceived desirability of these activities in self-directed continued learning is closer than the relationship between the model activities and the respondents' actual performance of these activities in their self-directed continued learning. That is, the model activities were a more accurate representation of the activities the nurses would perform than of the activities they actually did perform. Most of the activities (77 percent) related to the model components Needs, Setting and Objectives were conducted by at least 70 percent of the item respondents. Over one-half of the activities of the Evaluation and Learning Activities components were conducted by at least 70 percent of the item respondents. The item activity responses indicated that at least 90 percent of the activities of each of the model components would be performed by 80 percent or more of the item respondents if resources and/or assistance were available.

The findings and conclusions of the study suggest that the Knox model has applicability in self-directed continued learning in nursing in (1) identifying learning activities that are and/or would be performed, (2) identifying a particular pattern of learning, and (3) identifying relationships between the use of self-directed and other-directed learning activities in continued learning.

IMPLICATIONS

The findings and conclusions of the study have implications in several areas. In planning other-directed continuing education programs in nursing, a more comprehensive assessment of learner needs would seem to have merit. A wider range of program options to the learner would also seem desirable, particularly in regard to the time and location of program offerings, the program subject matter and the level of complexity or depth of the subject matter. Programming problems presented obstacles to continued learning for many of the respondents.

The self-directed continued learning of the nurses may be facilitated if greater assistance and resources were provided. In view of the finding that respondents would perform nearly all of the activities of the model more frequently if resources and/or assistance were provided, it is not unlikely that their self-directed continued learning could be performed more comprehensively and effectively if such assistance were given. It is also possible that they would become less dependent on their work setting in their learning and would use a greater variety of personal and material resources in learning, thus altering and enriching their present patterns of self-directed continued learning.

The study findings indicate that the nurses participated in other-directed learning activities to supplement their self-directed continued learning, and vice versa. It would seem that the continued learning of the nurses would be enhanced by efforts to coordinate self-directed and other-directed learning activities in the nurses' continuing professional learning.

The Knox model of life-long self-directed education proved useful in this study in identifying the respondents' present and desired activities of self-directed continued learning in nursing; and was also helpful in identifying a particular pattern of self-directed continued learning activities. The model may also be of help in other circumstances where a model of a process of self-directed continued learning would be useful or beneficial. The model may also be of help to other disciplines in identifying the self-directed continued learning activities and patterns of their members. Faculty in schools of nursing and members of staff development departments may find the model helpful in teaching and promoting continuing professional learning through self-directed learning.

There may be implications for use of this model in establishing or promoting a climate of learning in the work environment. It may be feasible for staff or in-service educators to use the model as a basis for assisting staff in assessing learning needs and setting objectives, in facilitating learning interactions with co-workers, in providing learning opportunities in the work setting and directing staff to its resources, and in assisting staff in evaluating the effect of their learning on client care and job performance. The respondents of this study drew heavily from persons, resources and events in their work setting in their self-directed continued learning. Thus, this use of the model may be particularly applicable to work environments in nursing.

The model may be applicable in counseling the self-directed continued learner. It may assist in identifying the individual learner's pattern of continued learning, in assessing the strengths of that pattern, in revealing problematic areas in learning, and in recommending activities that would lead to more effective self-directed continued learning.

The findings of the study, related to the content and process of the nurses' learning, suggest that self-directed continued learning can no longer be considered as a somewhat frivolous mode of continued learning, but rather should be regarded with the same seriousness as do its participants, and that this regard be translated into action that will promote its use and effectiveness.

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A COMPETENCY-BASED ADULT READING MANAGEMENT SYSTEM [1]

Lynn Klem[2]

Abstract

A paper entitled "Competency-Based Adult Education: An Organized Approach to Effective Programming in New Jersey" (Ciccariello et al, 1979) was developed by a special task force appointed to clarify New Jersey's philosophy concerning Competency-Based Adult Education. In 1980, The New Jersey Adult Reading Project conducted a statewide needs assessment of New Jersey's Adult Basic Education (ABE) and General Educational Development (GED) teachers.

The ideas espoused in the concept paper were used as a goal; the finding of the needs assessment were used as an indicator of the state of the art of New Jersey Adult Education programming. Subsequently, The New Jersey Adult Reading Project designed a management system to span the bridge between where New Jersey's programs were and where they wanted to be concerning Competency-Based Adult Education.

The progression of theory to research to practical application to impact evaluation is a sequence which although logical, is frequently unrealizable for adult educators.

Committed to the philosophy of competency-based adult education, the Bureau of Adult, Continuing, Community Education of New Jersey has awarded 310 funds for three consecutive years to the New Jersey Adult Reading Project to implement such a process.

This paper states the theory, briefly reports on the research, describes the system developed and explains the evaluation process, all of which grew out of such a commitment.

As a state project, the importance of the involvement of New Jersey's adult educators could not be minimized. To date, more than 500 New Jersey adult educators from 75 of the states' 163 adult education programs have participated in at least one phase of the development of the competency-based adult reading management system.

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[1] The competency-based adult reading management system, described herein, was developed by the N.J. Adult Reading Project, Office of Adult Continuing Education, Glassboro State College, Glassboro, N.J. and funded under Section 310 of the Adult Education Act, New Jersey Department of Education, Division of School Programs, Bureau of Adult, Continuing, Community Education. The contents of this paper do not necessarily reflect the views or policies of Glassboro State College or the New Jersey Department of Education, Division of School Programs, Bureau of Adult, Continuing Community Education.

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THEORY

In 1979 a task force of N.J. adult educators was formed to develop a concept paper on competency-based adult education (Ciccariello et al. 1979).

That paper begins with the following statement:

> "Competency-Based Adult Education (CBAE) involves the adult learner in a personalized educational process which emphasizes the achievement of demonstrated outcomes significant to each individual learner, now and in the future. The personalized educational process focuses on learning basic skills within the context of the adult's interests, needs and personal goals. Individual learning programs, developed cooperatively with the adult learner and the adult education staff reflect the educational needs of the student in communication (reading, writing, speaking, listening) and computation as these skills apply to the expressed goals and interests of the student. In addition to basic skills and relevant information, the student may need to develop process skills such as problem solving, interpersonal relations, etc. Ultimately the success of the learner's program is measured by the actual demonstration of learning outcomes in real situations. The demonstration of learning outcomes does not isolate the measurement of skills and knowledge, but integrates the skills and knowledge into specific performance tasks."

The N.J. Adult Reading Project was funded to develop a process to assist Adult Educators in changing this statement from a concept into a reality.

RESEARCH

It was the contention of the N.J. Adult Reading Project that prior to the development of an instructional system, or any of its components, the developers must be cognizant of the ambient factors which would affect the implementation of that system.

The goal of the N.J. Adult Reading Project was the development of a competency-based adult reading management system. It was apparent that the value of this system for N.J. adult education programs would be proportionate to the facility with which it could be implemented in these programs. Therefore, it was deemed necessary to determine: reading instructional practices among adult educators, factors which might act as constraints in the implementation of a competency-based adult reading management system, components of competency-based adult reading instruction which were already in place, and areas of necessary professional development.

As it was the teachers in adult education programs who would be using the products developed by The N.J. Adult Reading Project, consideration of their input was essential at each stage of the development process.

The results of the needs assessment (Klem, 1980) indicated that New Jersey's adult education teachers believe that their programs should utilize a competency-based approach to instruction but that they lacked resources which would enable them to do so.

Among the items which appeared with highest frequency on their "wish lists" were: information concerning competency-based adult reading materials, an adult reading skills array, and instruments which would assess adult interests, competencies and reading skills.

PRACTICAL APPLICATION

Based upon the philosophy of competency-based adult education and the results of the statewide adult education needs assessment, The New Jersey Adult Reading Project has developed a Competency-Based Adult Reading Management System. The components of this system include:

- Adult Interest Assessment Processes (designed to assist students in identifying their goals)
- Adult Competency Assessment Tests (designed to identify the reading skills and competencies adults need to meet their goals)
- An Adult Reading Skills Array (a listing of the skills needed for reading)
- An Adult Reading Inventory for Educational Selections (ARIES) (a descriptive listing of competency-based adult reading materials)
- Adult Functional Word Lists (lists of words relating to the competencies needed to meet the adults' goals)

Although any component of this system can be used in isolation, the components are designed to be used in conjunction with each other.

This Competency-Based Adult Reading Management System is based on the premise that the instructional program of each student should be designed in consideration of the student's goals and interests.

Many adult education programs are currently organized to provide instruction in an individualized manner. However, individualization frequently consists of a continuum of educational activities which adults are "plugged into" based upon their score on a reading test. An adult student functioning in this type of an individualized program proceeds at his or her own rate through a pre-set series of educational activities until he or she achieves a specific score on an exit test.

This Competency-Based Adult Reading Management System provides an alternative to the individualization approach as described above. The implementation of this system would provide each adult student with a personalized educational program based upon his or her own goals.

A process has been designed for adult educators who choose to utilize the Competency-Based Adult Reading Management System. This process is based upon each adult's stated goals. The adult's goals can be identified through counseling or by administering one of the Adult Interest Assessment Processes developed by the N.J. Adult Reading Project.

Once the adult's goals have been determined, utilization of Teacher Information Sheets provides the instructor with a delineation of the reading competencies necessary to accomplish each of the goals. The process also provides the instructor with a delineation of each of the reading skills (taken from the Adult Reading Skills Array) involved in the particular competency, and the words which will probably be encountered in reading matter pertaining to the competency.

Included in the system are Competency Assessment Tests which are used to evaluate:

1. the student's ability to perform the competency
2. the student's mastery of the specific reading skills involved in the competency

Once the adult has completed the appropriate Competency Assessment Test, the instructor has the following information:

- the student's goals
- the reading related competencies which are requisite to obtain those goals
- the reading skills necessary for each competency
- the particular competencies and reading skills which the student needs to develop in order to meet his or her goals.
- a listing of words which the student would probably encounter while reading materials related to the particular competency

The student's instructional reading program can now be developed. Competency-based reading materials can be identified by referring to The Adult Reading Index for Educational Selection (ARIES) developed by The N.J. Adult Reading Project.

The implementation of the Competency-Based Adult Reading Management System is one way to provide each adult student with a personalized, competency-based, instructional reading program.

EVALUATION PROCESS

During FY '82, The New Jersey Adult Reading Project is evaluating the Competency-Based Adult Reading Management System in 18 adult education programs throughout the state. With the assistance of a third party evaluator, Research for Better Schools from Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, the project has developed a quasi-experimental evaluation design based on the "Nonequivalent Control Group Design" (Campbell and Stanley, 1963). It is anticipated that the findings of this study will enable the New Jersey Adult Reading Project to apply for national validation of the competency-based adult reading management system in the fall of 1982.

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COMMUNITY EDUCATION IN NEW YORK STATE: A FIRST LOOK

Russell J. Kratz[1]

Abstract

This study describes the extent to which various kinds of community education activities are practiced by school districts in New York State. Ancillary to this purpose, the study also examines the relationship of these community education activities and some of the eight minimum elements of a community education program described in Section 802, Title IX of the Community Schools and Comprehensive Community Education Act.

One of the purposes of community education programs, as described in the Community Schools and Comprehensive Community Education Act, Title VIII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended by the Education Amendments of 1978, (P.L. 95-561), is to develop the "capacity within States to support the continued growth of community education" (Federal Register, April, 1980, p. 22702). The New York State Education Department, Division of Continuing Education, considered that a first step in providing this support was to identify the community education activities that are practiced in the 712 regular, operating school districts in the State.

METHODOLOGY

From the literature (See LeTarte and Minzey, 1972; Seay, 1974; Decker, 1977), from practitioners, and from experts a screening survey was developed. The results of the survey identified school districts which had a potential for community education activities, school districts which had minimal community education activities with perhaps some elements of a community education program, and school districts which had a broad scope of community education activities with a clearly perceived community education program. The survey asked the following questions:

1. Are the school buildings in your district used by agencies, organizations, or groups for programs other than the regular or extracurricular K-12 program or the district's own adult education or continuing education program?

2. Does your district plan or coordinate programs with these various community agencies such as establishing a calendar of activities, sharing resources, exchanging ideas, or implementing joint programs?

3. Is the planning, cooperation, or coordination between your district and the various community agencies accomplished through an officially mandated advisory group composed of representatives of the school district, various community agencies, and private citizens?

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Each question suggests a greater degree or greater commitment to community education activities. The first question really suggests a potential for community education activities. It implies that no community education activities actually are practiced, but by allowing various agencies to use their buildings, school districts create a situation where community education activities are probable. The second question suggests some community education activities with perhaps a minimal program perceived by the district. This category includes a wide range of community education activities that a school district might practice. The third question suggests a broad scope of community education activities and a clearly perceived community education program.

The screening survey was mailed to the superintendents of each of the 712 regular, operating school districts in New York State. A total of 580 or about 81 percent of the superintendents responded. The 480 superintendents or contact persons who responded positively to any of the three questions were given a follow-up telephone interview. It analyzed the three questions of the initial screening survey into 16 multi-part questions. Each question had one to ten sub-questions for a total of 136 sub-questions. The 16 multipart questions operationally described some of the eight minimum elements of a community education program described in the Community Education Act.

The responses to the telephone interview were totaled and percent equivalents were calculated. Highlights of the survey were put together which described the two or three greatest responses to the 16 multi-part questions and some statistically significant relationships among the 136 sub-questions. The 360 school districts which responded positively to the first two questions or to all three questions of the initial survey were then analyzed with respect to these multi-part questions. The 360 respondents were dichotomized by a positive-negative or high-low response to many of the 16 multi-part questions. The number of high-low or positive-negative responses were then compared with respect to each of the 136 sub-questions by means of a chi square test.

FINDINGS

The table below describes the responses to the initial three-question survey.

Responses to Community Education Screening Survey

Kind of Responses	Number	Percent of Districts Surveyed*	Percent of Total Districts
No positive response	100	17.2	14.0
Positive response to Question 1	120	20.7	16.9
Positive response to Questions 1 and 2	308	53.1	43.3
Positive response to Question 1, 2 & 3	52	9.0	7.3

*132 (18.5 percent) of the school districts in the state did not respond to the survey.

The responses indicate that 100 (14 percent) of the school districts in New York State have no community education activities whatsoever; they indicate that 120 (16.9 percent) of the school districts in New York State have the potential for community education activities or a community education program; they indicate that 308 (43.3 percent) of the school districts have some community education activities or some minimal elements of a community education program; they also indicate that 52 (7.3 percent) of the school districts have a broad scope of community education activities with a clearly perceived community education program.

Significant relationships were found between some of the 16 multi-part questions and several of the 136 sub-questions.

Full-Time Director

About ten percent of the districts indicated that they had full-time directors of their community education programs. Significant differences were present in seven-sub questions. They concerned (1) the use of the districts' building(s) by business or industrial agencies, (2) the districts' coordination or planning with social services agencies, (3) the existence of centralized staff development opportunities, multi-service centers, and an ombudsman, (4) and the districts' coordination with other agencies for parent programs and youth activities.

Community Center

About 89 percent of the districts indicated that they had a community center. Of all the public facilities mentioned, a building in the school district was indicated most often (50 percent) as serving as a community center. Significant differences were present in 15 sub-questions. They concerned (1) the use of the districts' building(s) by social service agencies, (2) the existence of centralized record keeping, (3) the providing of human resources by other educational agencies, (4) the providing by the districts of space or facilities for parent programs, senior citizen programs, volunteer activities, social programs, pre-school programs, youth activities, social service activities, and recreational activities, (5) the leadership role of the districts in youth activities and recreational activities, (6) the existence of community education activities after school, (7) the existence of programs for senior citizens.

Needs Assessment

Mailed questionnaires were the means most often chosen (47 percent) by the advisory council to assess community needs and interests. Significant differences were present in 3 sub-questions which concerned (1) the districts' coordination of pre-school programs with other community agencies, (2) the mandating of the advisory council by the Board of Education, and (3) the presence of citizens at large on the advisory council.

Advisory Group

About 14 percent of the districts indicated that they had mandated advisory councils. Significant differences were present in 21 sub-questions which concerned (1) the districts' planning or coordination with government agencies, business or industrial agencies, and social service agencies, (2) the existence of centralized staff development and joint programming with other agencies, (3) the providing of physical resources by social service and voluntary organizations, (4) the leadership role of the districts in senior citizen programs, pre-school programs, youth activities, social services activities, and recreational activities, (5) and the providing by the districts of pre-school programs, adult education programs, programs for senior citizens, functionally illiterate individuals, limited English speaking individuals, and handicapped individuals.

DISCUSSION

Four multi-part questions -- the presence of a full-time director, the existence of a community center, the assessment of needs, and the operating of an advisory council -- were chosen to be analyzed because they relate to four of the eight minimum elements of a community education program described in the Community Education Act. The presence of a full-time director can be considered a significant part of the "substantial involvement by the local educational agency in administering and operating the program." The existence of a community center is one of the eight minimum elements. The assessment of needs corresponds with "procedures for identifying community needs." The functioning of an advisory council is a significant element in "community involvement in advice and governance."

Some of the minimum elements are related to each other. For example, an expected relationship exists between community involvement in advice and governance and service to a broad scope of community groups. School districts with advisory councils tend to provide programs for pre-school children, adults in general, senior citizens in particular, functionally illiterate individuals, limited English-speaking individuals, and handicapped individuals.

Other elements, however, are not related when one might expect them to be. For example, while one might expect that substantial involvement by a school district would have a relationship to a broad scope of services, the data do not support this expectation. The presence of a full-time director for community education activities has a significant relationship to only seven (5 percent) of the other 135 sub-questions. If a school district has to make a choice of spending its money on a full-time director or the development of advisory councils, it may be wise for it to spend it on the latter.

Full-Time Director

As was mentioned above, the presence of a full-time director does not have a relationship to a broad scope of services. A significant relationship exists, however, between the presence of a full-time director and the three kinds of services least often provided by school districts. Of the 12 kinds of coordination, planning, and services, the three least often undertaken or provided were multi-service centers (27 percent), centralized staff development opportunities (20 percent), and the existence of an ombudsman (10 percent). The presence of a full-time director may enable a school district to provide these more complex services.

Community Center

It is interesting to note that a school building is the public facility most often used as a community center (50 percent). A significant relationship exists between having a community center and the space and resources that it provides to most of the community activities indicated on the survey. While it might be expected that a community center can provide space and facilities for various community activities, this, in fact, seems to be the practice among school districts in New York State.

Needs Assessment

Few significant relationships exist between an advisory council's assessing the needs and interests of the community and the scope of community education activities. It is difficult to assess the reasons for the limited, significant relationships. One possible reason may be the wide variation of needs and interests which are present in the many school districts in New York State. A needs assessment of a community, then, may tend to generate more or less activities depending on the identified needs and available resources of a particular community. A significant relationship exists between assessing needs by an advisory council and the advisory council's being mandated by a local board of education and between assessing needs by an advisory council and the presence of citizens at large on the advisory council. A board of education's mandating an advisory council and citizen involvement on an advisory council tend to encourage the undertaking of community needs assessments.

Advisory Group

The existence of an advisory council has a significant relationship to a school district's leadership role in many community education activities and a significant relationship to the scope of community education programming. Programs for limited English speaking individuals (42 percent) and functionally illiterate individuals (36 percent) were programs least undertaken by school districts. The presence of a mandated advisory council may encourage school districts to provide programs for these two populations. Reasons for such relationships are not clear. Perhaps, representatives on advisory councils are more aware of the needs of functionally illiterate and limited English speaking individuals.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The paper presents a preliminary examination of the extent to which 580 school districts in New York State practice various kinds of community education activities. After an initial mailing screening survey, 480 school districts were identified as having a variety of community education activities, the potential for these activities or an established community education program perceived by the district. Four variables, - the presence of a full-time director, the existence of a community center, the assessment of needs, and the operating of an advisory council - because of their relationship to some of the eight Federal, minimum elements, were related to the other variables of the interview. Several significant relationships were found. Of particular note is the significant relationship between the existence of an advisory council, the broad scope of programming and the broad spectrum of citizens served by community education programs. Also, it is clear that a significant relationship exists between the presence of a community center and the space and facilities that a school district provides for a variety of community education activities.

Only four variables were examined. It will be important to identify other variables that affect community education activities and programs. At a time of limited fiscal resources, school districts will need to know how to spend their money to get the kind and variety of services they desire.

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THE EXAMINATION OF A COMPREHENSIVE IN-SERVICE TRAINING ACTIVITY AS A LEARNING SYSTEM

Richard T. Liles
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Abstract

This paper describes a learning system perspective for analyzing a comprehensive in-service training program for professionals in the North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service. The study has three broad purposes: [1] to test the idea of a learning system for potential as an analytical tool; [2] to develop and test non-quantitative modes for observing an ongoing activity; and [3] to seek bases for refining/revising a training activity.

The North Carolina Extension Executive Development Institute is designed to develop the leadership and management abilities of selected county extension staff in the Agricultural Extension Service. Participation is intended to strengthen knowledge and skills in management, organizational design and development, human resource development, public policy formation, programming, and financial operations. The Institute is staffed by over 40 faculty drawn from the Departments of Adult and Community College Education, Economics and Business, Political Science, and Psychology at North Carolina State University; the North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service; and from the School of Business Administration and the Institute of Government, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

This Institute is more comprehensive than the typical extension in-service training program. Extension training is usually designed by specialists as short term activities to update agents in subject matter. The Institute, however, consists of six three-day sessions spaced approximately one month apart. It is comprehensive in terms of the amount of organizational energy expended in planning, the extensive effort put forth in the design, and in the extent and variety of resources used in implementing the training. It is also atypical in that considerable time and effort between sessions and a personal financial contribution are expected of each participant.

It is also comprehensive in the variety of learning activities provided. Class instruction includes lecture-discussion, small group work, seminars, and participant or group presentations. Between sessions participants are provided with extensive reading materials and references. A principal learning project that spans the entire six months is centered around a comprehensive case study. This project, termed "The Sunset Case," poses a situation in which a newly elected Board of County Commissioners applies the principles of zero based budgeting to the county extension unit. The 19 participants have been divided into four learning teams, each representing a county extension staff. Each is charged with developing a presentation and a portfolio of evidence to justify continuing support of the county extension unit from public funds. This project was included as a device for integrating the knowledge and skills gained from various learning activities throughout the training program. The final day of the Institute will be devoted to group presentations resulting from work on "The Sunset Case."

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THE LEARNING SYSTEM

The learning system construct offers an orderly and rational perspective for assessing the adequacy of an in-service training program. It consists of elements known to be critical in facilitating learning. An analysis based on these elements enables judgments to be made concerning the adequacy of the learning activities. Judgments based on the various elements can then provide bases for refining, eliminating, continuing or adding to learning activities in the ongoing training program. The eight elements of a learning system, drawn from the work of Ralph W. Tyler and refined by Mariam Mujie (1981), are described as follows:

[1] Motivation refers to opportunities for stimulating participant effort. Activities that foster interest, facilitate learner involvement or reward the demonstration of desirable behavior contribute toward this element. Effective learning systems foster motivation from within and keep the learner engaged in the learning task.

[2] Clarity of objectives from a learner perspective enables learners to understand learning goals as well as ways for accomplishing them. Activities that clarify objectives help participants understand what is expected in regards to desired ways of thinking, feeling and acting.

[3] Reinforcement provides the learner clues as to the successful accomplishment of learning objectives and desired behaviors.

[4] Feedback informs learners that demonstrated behavior was adequate or provides indications of how the behavior can be corrected.

[5] Adequacy of learning tasks refers to those activities in which the learner engages to accomplish learning objectives. Emphasis is placed upon what the learner does, not what the teacher does. Adequate learning tasks maximize desirable change, are within the range of learner ability, build upon previous experiences, and help the learner make connections between what is learned in one discipline and ideas from another field.

[6] Sequential practice includes opportunities provided for practicing what is to be learned. This practice should be sequential--each additional practice building upon what went before, with broader scope and additional depth. Practice should be challenging, enhance competence, and move toward achieving additional objectives.

[7] Transfer occurs when the learner is able to practice what is learned in one situation in a different situation. It reflects the ability to generalize behavior.

[8] Reinforcement and feedback in the transfer situation is concerned with stabilizing desired behavioral change. It refers to assisting learners in continuing to demonstrate desired behavior in their actual living/work situations.

DATA COLLECTION

A multi-method approach to data collection is being utilized. Following is a description of the methods utilized along with examples of the kinds of observations being obtained.

Participant-as-observer recordings of the activities are being made in each of the three-day group sessions in the form of a time log. The four members of the research team have attached themselves to the group as resource persons and have played a variety of roles in the training. At least two observers have recorded at all times and documentation has taken place through the use of a log sheet indicating time, participant behavior, and teacher behavior. During the first session all four observers recorded, at the same time, as much detail as possible. Comparisons were then made to make judgments about the validity of the recordings and the reliability of the observers. A consciousness of the eight elements of the learning system was used in deciding what to observe and record.

In subsequent sessions the researchers will continue recording as much detail as possible. Examples of behaviors recorded include participants asking questions, making positive or negative comments, providing information, reading, taking notes, or challenging statements made by others. Other observations include teachers presenting information, asking questions, giving reinforcement, providing positive or negative feedback, clarifying objectives, and summarizing. During the third group session six hours were occupied by participants listening to lecturers; one hour was spent interacting with resource persons.

A second method for collecting data involves a pre and post self-anchoring judgment made by participants with regard to their competence in the major content areas of the Institute curriculum. According to Kilpatrick and Cantril (1960), this method enables researchers to assess self-perceived changes in knowledge and skills as a result of the training. For example, at the beginning of the Institute participants rated themselves on a 10 point scale indicating their ability to give leadership in public policy. On the average they anchored themselves slightly above midpoint. Following the sessions on public policy participants were asked to again rate their ability to give leadership in this area, and the average was 6.5. At the same time they were asked to reconsider the rating they gave themselves at the beginning of the Institute, before public policy was introduced. For this reconsidered (reflective) pre-instruction rating, the average dropped about two points. When comparing the post instruction anchoring with the reconsidered pre instruction anchoring, participants indicated an average improvement in their ability to provide leadership in public policy by over 2.5 points on a 10 point scale.

A daily feedback sheet containing a Likert-type scale is used to evaluate each day's session. This sheet obtains information on the perceived effectiveness of resource persons and various learning strategies and methods. In addition, questionnaires are being used to obtain demographic and other information. For example, a questionnaire was given at the beginning of the third session to determine how much time participants spent preparing for the sessions.

Participant papers prepared after each session, in which they reflect on their experience in the Institute, provide a variety of data. They have given reactions to the group sessions, to resource persons, and to the utility of the ideas presented. They have made connections between information from the training, their work environment and other situations. Reflection papers are read, the content is analyzed, and oral and written comments are given to participants. Examples from reflection papers include such comments as, "This is the most exciting experience of my career;" "The Institute exceeded my expectations;" "The connection between my job responsibilities and what occurred at the first session has been inspirational;" and "My greatest concern about the Institute is the amount of time that it will require."

Prior to the first session participants were asked to write a narrative describing the leadership/managerial system in the county extension unit in which they are employed. At the end of the program they will be asked to repeat this exercise. Content analysis will be used to make inferences regarding changes in participants' ways of conceptualizing a leadership/management system. The initial description provided by participants typically described areas of staff assignment and characterized how the county unit chairman operates. Mechanisms of leadership mentioned most often included staff conferences and the volunteer leadership advisory system. What was provided by most participants was largely descriptive, focusing mainly on the county extension chairman.

Useful data are being collected by the research team through spontaneous and unplanned sources. Much of this serendipitous information has been in the form of anecdotal data. It comes from co-workers who pass on comments made by a participant or report observations on participant behavioral changes. Typical comments are, "I am hearing excellent things about the Institute;" and "My co-worker came back and talked about the Institute...I have never seen her more excited." One participant reported his co-worker using information from the Institute in conducting an Advisory Board meeting. Finally, the case study presentations to be made by the four teams will be recorded on video tape. Content analysis will be used on these taped observations to make inferences regarding changes in participant knowledge, attitudes, skills, and ability to conceptually represent extension as a dynamic educational effort deserving public resources.

PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS

The learning system construct has been useful as a tool for organizing and analyzing observations. The following section demonstrates how data can be clustered by the various elements for making judgments regarding the adequacy of each.

Information about motivation has been available from several sources. Reflection papers have contained statements describing the Institute as "exciting," "terrific," and "exceeding expectations." Participant-as-observer recordings have revealed enthusiasm, extensive involvement in dialogue, active participation in group work, active questioning and listening, as well as instances when individual participants failed to give attention to a lecturer. Anecdotes obtained from co-workers and supervisors have included indicators of motivation such as, "My co-worker came back and talked about the Institute during half of our staff meeting," and others have reported statements about resource persons doing an excellent job. From this initial analysis the researchers have concluded that the motivational dimension of this training program is adequate.

Observations on clarity of objectives have been obtained from reflection papers and participant-as-observer recordings. For example, a statement in a reflection paper that an individual feels that learning about public policy formation will make him a more effective county chairman shows that the learning objective was clear. Observer recordings of a session coordinator making connections between a learning activity and a written objective represents effort to make the desired behavior apparent to participants. When a student reports, "I am doing a better job in working with my advisory committee", it indicates understanding of the purpose of the Institute.

Judgments about reinforcement have been derived from observer recordings, reflection papers and serendipitous sources. Analysis has revealed that facilitators and resource persons do give rewards, especially positive comments, to learners for desirable behavior. Written forms of reinforcement come through comments on reflection papers and homework assignments. Reinforcement also comes as one participant praises another. These same sources have provided data on feedback. Feedback is available, but the adequacy of the feedback is being questioned. For example, during a recent session several participants informed a faculty member that they did not know how they were doing in the program. Furthermore, the group has asked for more written comments on homework assignments and reflection papers. One asked how he could improve his participation in the group work.

Much information has been accumulated on the adequacy of learning tasks. Daily feedback sheets show that some tasks were appropriate, and others not. Comments in reflection papers reveal instances in which some activities were judged exciting and others not. The time logs have shown that much time is being spent with participants listening to resource persons. Reflection papers and spontaneous comments indicate that for some, too much printed material is being provided. The primary data source for sequential practice has been reflection papers and observer recordings. The extensive use of case studies has provided occasions for practice, particularly "The Sunset Case."

Opportunities for transfer have been revealed through reflection papers and recorded comments made in the group sessions. The fact that participants return to their work environment between sessions gives them opportunity to use what they have learned. Work on "The Sunset Case" has enabled participants to transfer learning to that different situation. Although clues about transfer are now available, the ultimate indicator is how well the participants will do as leaders and managers when the training is over. The preliminary analysis shows that inadequacies may exist in opportunities for reinforcement and feedback in the transfer situation. As a learning system, the Institute does not contain a means for insuring feedback as the participants function in their work situation.

IMPLICATIONS

In consultation with Ralph W. Tyler, the authors have formulated a number of implications from preliminary analysis of data. It appears that the learning system idea is useful in analyzing a comprehensive in-service training program. Clues have been revealed about the strengths and weaknesses of various aspects of the Institute. The method being used to gather data is giving useful, non-quantified information. There is need for methods useful in gaining insight as to how participants are organizing and using information between sessions. The use of tape recorded interviews is being considered. The elements of the learning system have been helpful in evaluating the effectiveness of a single learning activity, a one-day period, and an entire three-day session. Observations made in connection with the comprehensive case have shown that the case is an appropriate learning task, providing motivation, and giving opportunity for transfer and sequential practice. The case has enabled instructors to clarify objectives by explaining how a learning activity will be useful in preparation for the case presentation. As a learning activity, the comprehensive case encompasses more of the major elements of the learning system than any other task and over time both participants and faculty have given it increased emphasis.

Motivation is high, reinforcement and feedback are occurring, sequential practice and transfer take place, and objectives are generally clear. Most learning tasks are adequate, but there is evidence of information overload, excessive time spent listening, and proportionately too little time spent interacting with resource persons. It has been suggested that Institute coordinators serve as facilitators of the learning, using resource persons in response to participant needs, rather than turning the teaching responsibility over to resource people, as has been happening. More time is needed for helping learners make connections between activities provided and the learning objectives and for reflecting and synthesizing.

The learning system perspective is providing sound bases for refining/revising an in-service training program. The examination of the Extension Executive Development Institute as a learning system is demonstrating that it has many characteristics of an adequate learning system. It was well planned and is being carefully implemented. This study provides an opportunity to adjust and further improve an excellent training program. The limited observations thus far are being used by the Institute faculty to make adjustments in the ongoing program and by extension administrators to make decisions about the allocation of resources for future Institutes.

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READING STRATEGIES OF ADULT READERS: IMPLICATIONS FOR INSTRUCTION

Bonnie Longnion[1]

Abstract

This study was structured to provide information about adult readers' strategies as they proceed through text material. Such information is valuable not only to the reading and adult education researchers but to the practioners as well.

This investigation has been structured to examine the reading strategies of adult readers as they proceed through text. Several researchers (Allen, 1969; Burke, 1969: Glenn, 1976; Goodman, 1965; Goodman, 1969; Menosky, 1971; Page, 1975; and Wielan, 1980) have viewed the analysis of oral reading errors or miscue analysis as a means of providing insights into children's reading behavior. Analysis of oral reading is often based on the use of the Reading Miscue Inventory (Goodman and Burke (1972). This expanding body of research has not escaped criticism (Weber, 1968; Newman, 1978; Groff, 1979; and Wixson, 1979); however, Wixson in her critical review positively states:

> Recent promotion of miscue analysis has served the field of reading well. The popularization of miscue analysis has succeeded in bringing about an awareness of reading as a language process, and sensitizing people to the necessity for a method of evaluation which will accurately reflect this process in operation (p. 172).

Goodman (1970) has been a leader in miscue analysis research, and he defines reading as a

> . . . psycholinguistic process by which the reader (a language user) reconstructs, as best as he can, a message which has been encoded as a graphic display . . . The meaning that the reader will eventually derive originates in his head rather than on one page, and he utilizes only as much visual information as he requires to confirm a correct prediction (p. 103).

Goodman (1970) and Smith (1971) both argue there are sources of information that readers use in their visual search for meaning. Smith suggested these sources of information are orthographic, syntactic, and semantic. Goodman labeled his three sources to be graphophonic, syntactic, and semantic. He suggested that these three cue systems are simultaneous and interdependent. They both conclude that not all of the information that is needed by the reader is on the printed page (orthographic or graphophonic cueing system). Readers also use their knowledge of language (syntactic cueing system) and their knowledge of the world (semantic cueing system) to comprehend text.

Many variables have been examined for their effect on reading strategies. Menosky (1979) in her dissertation study examined the effect of varying the length of text for second, fourth, sixth, and eigth graders. She found that the length of text was fairly important for low readers. They produced more totally acceptable miscues as they progressed through the text.

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This study examined the effect of text length on adult reading strategies. Although there have been studies conducted with adult readers, most have used subjects that are proficient readers or non-proficient readers in a college setting. Very few studies have addressed the beginning adult reader enrolled in the adult basic education programs (Kingston, 1972; and Kavale and Lindsey, 1977). This study adds information to the field of miscue analysis research as well as to the recently developing strand of adult reading research.

METHODOLOGY

A summary of the methodology used in this study is discussed below in a brief review of the sample, instrumentation, procedures, and data analyses.

Sample

Three groups from three instructional sites in Central Texas participated in the study: 18 college senior Education majors; 20 high-risk college freshmen enrolled in a special reading and study skills class, and 20 adult basic education subjects. Most of the ABE subjects were beginning readers (first, second, and third grade readers).

Instrumentation

Each of the subjects were administered two different forms (long versus short) of an informal reading inventory. Each form had fourteen separate selections, and each form contained a selection for each grade level from one to fourteen. The selections on the long form were nearly twice as long as the corresponding grade level selection on the short form.

Procedures

The readers read the selections orally, and their performance was tape recorded. At the completion of their oral reading, the subjects were asked to answer 10 comprehension questions orally. Subjects continued reading selections until their independent, instructional, and frustrational levels were determined for both forms. Their miscues were recorded on a coding sheet and the Reading Miscue Inventory was applied to the data to obtain measures of graphophonic acceptability of the miscues, syntactic acceptability of the miscues, semantic acceptability of the miscues, percentage of corrections of miscues, percentage of miscues resulting in serious meaning loss, and percentage of corrected miscues that had earlier resulted in meaning loss. Percentages were computed for four quarters of text.

Data Analyses

Regression analysis and orthogonal contrasts were utilized to examine the differences in reading behavior across four quarters of text. Regression analysis and orthogonal contrasts were also used to examine differences in performances across four quarters of text for variables of length, group membership, and readability.

RESULTS

Table 1 provides the means for all of the readers performance across text. Graphophonic acceptability of miscues, semantic acceptability of miscues, corrections, and corrections of miscues resulting in earlier loss of meaning increased as readers proceeded through the text. Syntactic acceptability remained fairly constant and the percentage of miscues resulting in meaning loss decreased as readers progressed through the text. This finding supports Menosky's findings. In addition, this study confirms a study (Hoffman, 1980) conducted with the use of a cloze test with college undergraduates that revealed there is contextual build up across units of discourse larger than the sentence.

Table 1

Means of Quarters of Text for Variables

Variables[a]	Quarters First	Second	Third	Fourth
Graphophonic acceptability	71.99	71.33	71.29	71.26
Syntactic acceptability	70.74	70.74	68.31	70.68
Semantic acceptability	35.02	37.50	37.82	38.58
Corrections	21.22	20.14	21.00	24.50
Meaning loss	46.39	44.41	41.45	41.25
Corrected meaning loss	26.84	27.81	29.68	33.13

[a] n = 200 (approximately) for each variable

Simple regression analysis was applied to the means of the quarters of text to determine if there were significant differences. Regression analysis was conducted for the scores for all 58 subjects as well as the factors of group membership, readability, and text length (long versus short form). No significant differences were found in the scores for quarters of text for all 58 subjects; however, performance on the short form yielded significantly different scores for semantic acceptability. Orthogonal contrasts revealed the differences to be between the first and second quarters. The long form yielded differences for semantic acceptability and meaning loss. Orthogonal contrasts conducted on the means revealed the differences were due to performance on the first quarter of text. Group membership also yielded some significant differences: senior Education majors yielded significantly different scores for percentage of corrections in the third and fourth quarters. High risk freshmen in college performed significantly different across text for the variables of graphophonic acceptability and syntactic acceptability.

Regression analysis was also conducted to determine if the variables of group membership, readability of a selection to a reader, and text length affected the subjects' performance across text. The regression analyses and orthogonal contrasts revealed that these three variables did significantly influence the adult readers' performance.

Most of the differences between the three groups were found between the ABE subjects and seniors in college for the measures of percentages of corrections and percentages of miscues that had earlier resulted in a loss of meaning. Differences were also found for the readability levels. Most of the differences were between the independent and frustrational selections. Most of the differences were for the measures of syntactic acceptability and semantic acceptability. Text length also affected the performance of the subjects.

DISCUSSION

In summary, adult readers' strategies change as they proceed through text. They rely more heavily on the context of the selection to provide meaning as they progress through text. However, their strategies also vary due to other factors. This study also revealed group membership, readability levels, and text length contributed to the variance of the production of miscues. These variables are not the only sources of variation for miscues. Wixson (1979) suggests other variables need to be explored. Text variables such as narrative selections versus expository selections or predictability or nonpredictability of a selection might warrant further investigation. In addition, student and methodology variables should also be examined to determine their effect on adult readers' strategies.

If and when researchers determine how an adult processes print, then practioners will have guidance for their teaching practices. This study suggests that readers do use the three cueing systems for processing print. The adults tend to use the graphophonic and syntactic cueing systems more efficiently than the semantic cueing system.

As noted earlier, historically little research has been done with beginning adult readers. Although, the ABE subjects performed differently than the other two groups for some measures, the data did not support miscue analysis research findings that used children as subjects for the issue of non-proficient readers versus proficient readers. Earlier findings (Wixson, 1979) with children support the notion that proficient and non-proficient readers perform differently.

Findings in this study support the idea that adult readers from the very beginning utilize all three cueing systems as they read text. It may be that readers at all levels need assistance from a teacher when a selection does not match his/her background of knowledge and experiences, language patterns, and ability to decode the words in the text.

The findings from this study and other miscue analysis studies prompt the following brief list of suggestions for the practioner aiding or teaching an adult to comprehend text:

1. Use language experience approach with beginning adult readers. The readers can then place most of their energy on the graphophonic cueing system since they will be processing print that contains their own syntax and experiences.
2. Provide direct instruction to students at all levels when necessary. The beginning adult reader will especially need assistance prior, during, and upon completion of reading an article to insure comprehension. Through questioning strategies try to determine the source or sources of interference of comprehension and adjust instructional strategies.
3. To practice reading skills, use selections at the student's independent level. Use familiar selections or relevant selections for instruction so the selection can be read with ease and readers can effectively use all cueing systems.
4. If a reader or readers do not have experiences or background knowledge in the content of a selection, provide the reader with information prior to his/her reading of the selection in order to promote the use of the semantic cueing system. Prereading activities might include the use of discussions, questioning strategies, structured overviews, films, guest speakers, tapes, and study guides.
5. Select articles that provide enough text to adequately provide the necessary redundancy of information from all three cueing systems. Since readers tend to improve their performance across text, comprehension practice should utilize text selections longer than a few sentences or even a few paragraphs.

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ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION TRAINING--THE EFFECTS ON ABE/ ASE STUDENTS' PSYCHOSOCIAL SELF-PERCEPTIONS

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This study was designed to identify the psychosocial needs of low-literate adults by using an instrument that was based on Erik Erikson's Ego-Stage development model; and to test the effectiveness of Achievement Motivation Training (AMT) as a technique to counterbalance the negative impact of such students' former experiences on their psychosocial development.

INTRODUCTION

The 1966 Adult Education Act was designed to provide a means by which low-literate adults could become more employable, productive, and responsible citizens. To accomplish all these goals, the programs that were developed to implement the act--adult basic education (ABE) and adult secondary education (ASE) programs--have focused on upgrading the literacy of participants, to the exclusion of equivalent efforts toward improving their self-esteem. The literature suggests that this policy has contributed to creating a situation in which ABE/ASE programs serve annually less than 5 percent of the approximately 57 million low-literate adults they were designed to serve, primarily because they experience high rates of attrition (Mezirow, et al., 1975). Clearly, to increase the effectiveness of ABE/ASE programs and their own abilities to reach such students, teachers of low-literate adults must become more familiar with these students' psychosocial needs than they are currently (Hand, 1968; and Kreitlow; 1965), and must develop the skills to cope with such needs (Martin, 1978).

LITERATURE REVIEW: CHARACTERISTICS OF LOW-LITERATE ADULTS

The psychosocial problems experienced by low-literate adults affect their behavior patterns in classroom, social, and work environments and contribute substantially to their remaining in the lowest social stratum in the United States (Hunter and Harmon, 1979). The existence and mitigating effects of these problems have been documented and discussed by authors who identify low-literates as being unable to function in a complex technological society and subdued by self-perpetuating negative self-concepts which prohibit their active participation in academic settings (Anderson and Niemi, 1969; Kavale and Lindsey, 1977; and Kreitlow, 1965). When the low-literates, as adults, reenter education, they often discover that the academic environment is inadequately prepared to either understand their psychosocial problems or to help them cope with these problems (Hand, 1968; Kreitlow, 1972; and Mezirow, 1975). It becomes evident to any careful observer that the low-literates, in an academic milieu, are trapped in a hopeless, recurring chain of events that locks them into self-defeating views of themselves and obstructs their motivation to achieve through education a standard of living commensurate with their levels of ability.

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The literature portrays low-literates as having experienced environments that have negatively affected their psychosocial development; this is manifested in their inability to break the cycle of situations and circumstances that locks them into a life of poverty. But understanding the actual psychosocial characteristics possessed by low-literate adults is only a first step in helping them alleviate the causes and consequences of their psychosocial problems and needs. To accomplish this, adult educators must first specify and categorize these needs and then develop strategies to cope with the ones that have been identified.

IDENTIFYING PSYCHOSOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS

Erik Erikson's (1969) model of ego-stage development provided the theoretical foundation for the instrument used to identify and describe the positive and negative psychosocial characteristics of the students in the sample. The instrument used in the study--the Self-Description Questionnaire (SDQ)--was developed by Robert Boyd (1964) to determine the extent to which adults positively or negatively resolved the eight ego-stages of Erikson's model. The present study employed a shorter, 64-item form of the SDQ which was revised by Martin (1978) to improve its applicability to a pilot sample of 42 adults. To avoid reading problems for illiterate students in the sample, the instrument was placed on audio tape and administered via tape recording. To determine the instrument's reliability, a coefficient of correlations was computed using the Reciprocal Averages Program (RAVE), which is an item analysis technique developed by Frank Baker (1965); the coefficient was found to be .92 for the like-unlike scale. The instrument appears to me to be highly consistent and clearly applicable in identifying the psychosocial characteristics of ABE/ASE students.

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION TRAINING

A technique that seems promising in helping low-literate adults to constructively address their psychosocial problems and needs within the confines of ABE/ASE programs is Achievement Motivation Training (AMT). Developed as a result of a five-year study on motivation by McClelland et al. (1953), AMT systematically utilizes concepts derived from the achievement imagery of high-need achievers (persons with a great deal of motivation to succeed) to motivate low-need achievers (persons unable to make full use of their potential to succeed) in academic settings (Markel et al. 1977). By investigating the motivational achievement imagery of high-need achievers and comparing them with those held by low-need achievers, McClelland et al. (1953) discovered significant differences in the imagery produced by the two groups when they analyzed the same problem situations. McClelland et al. demonstrated, through AMT, the ability to teach people to increase their motivation to achieve, through practice in telling stories which contained the essential elements of the responses given by high-need achievers, but which were primarily unknown to low-need achievers.

The size of the training group proved to be an important variable in the success of AMT programs. The early programs used individual instruction, which was effective but highly inefficient. Markel et al. (1977) tested large groups but found them less successful. They therefore devised the strategy, employed in this study, of working with several small groups of three or four students within each training session. This approach both allowed trainers to work with participants individually, and increased the opportunity for participants to receive support and social reinforcement from persons other than the trainers.

HYPOTHESIS

A null hypothesis, tested at the .05 significance level, was formulated to test the effects of AMT on the psychosocial self-perceptions of ABE/ASE students:

Achievement motivation training as conducted by professional psychologists does not change significantly the psychosocial self-perceptions of ABE/ASE students for any of Erikson's eight ego-stages.

METHODOLOGY

The research design consisted of a pretest/post-test experimental group which received AMT from three professional psychologists-- Markel, Rinn, and Worthy (see Markel et al.[1977])--who were hired as consultants to conduct the training. The experiment was designed to determine if the consultants, by administering AMT, could effect a significant change in the psychosocial self-perceptions of the students sampled. The group consisted of 15 students who met for 15 two-hour sessions over a period of 8 weeks--October through November of 1979.

Sample

The sample consisted of ABE/ASE students who were enrolled in an Adult Learning Center located in northern Alabama. Fifteen self-selected students took the pretest, which consisted of an administration of the SDQ, and 11 took the post-test--the second administration of the SDQ. Attendance in the sessions for those completing both tests ranged from a low of 5 to a high of 15, with the average being 11 sessions. This group had a good racial and sexual mix: 6 blacks, 4 whites and 1 oriental; 6 men and 5 women. Their ages ranged from 23 to 54 with an average age of 37.

TABLE 1

DIFFERENCES IN PRETEST/POST-TEST SCORES ON EGO-STAGE RESOLUTIONS

Like-Unlike Scale

Ego Stages	Pretest Total Score	Post-test Total Score	Total Group Improvement	T
Trust	-37	-1	+36	11*
Autonomy	-3	+31	+28	2.5*
Initiative	-33	-15	+18	.9*
Industry	+15	+34	+19	7.5*
Identity	0	+3	+3	17
Intimacy	+25	+26	+1	15.5
Generativity	+54	+26	-28	30
Integrity	1	+21	+20	14

N = 11

T = 11, P $<$.05 level

Range for each ego-stage: -1 to -20 and +1 to +20

*T is significant at the .05 level

T is a test statistic for the Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Test

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The consultants were able to effect significant changes in the psychosocial self-perceptions of the students sampled for the first four ego-stages in Erikson's model (Table 1). With the exception of the seventh stage, all the changes were in a positive direction. That is, the students who took the pretests and participated in the training sessions scored more positively on the post-tests than they did on the pre-tests. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

DISCUSSION

The literature suggested that the past experiences of low-literate adults have had a negative impact on their psychosocial development, and that this may account for many of the fundamental reasons why costly efforts to assist them have failed. Similarly, the efforts of ABE/ASE programs demonstrate the inability of cooperating federal, state, and local programs to achieve high levels of success in enrolling and graduating large proportions of low-literate adults, in the absence of overt consideration of ways to help them to overcome the consequences of their psychosocial problems and needs. The teachers of such students have been inhibited in coping with or helping students cope with such problems and needs because they lacked the necessary knowledge, considered it to be beyond their roles, or decided it would be hopeless to attempt the resolution of such problems within the classroom. By indicating that the negative ego-stage resolutions experienced by low-literates can be significantly and positively changed in ABE/ASE classes, the results of this study provide an impetus for interested teachers to help students positively resolve such problems.

The study demonstrates that when conducted by well-trained persons, AMT can be a useful technique to significantly improve the psychosocial self-perceptions of ABE/ASE students. The significant differences observed between the pretest and post-test scores of the participants also indicate that when provided the opportunity, these students will constructively address the psychosocial problems that most concern them. The way in which the training was conducted tended to focus considerable attention on the key elements of Erikson's first four ego-stages. The trainers pursued assiduously their efforts to establish trusting relationships with the students, encouraged them to discuss their own ideas and make decisions, and helped them to build confidence and competence through the comments they made about improving the goal-oriented activities of the characters in their stories.

A brief structured interview with each student who completed the training revealed that they all enjoyed it, and experienced a great deal of personal growth from it. Many were able to identify personal accomplishments, such as establishing closer relationships with their children, that they thought to be direct outcomes of their training. Others thought that they were better able to cope with the demands of the educational environment of the ABE/ASE program in which they were enrolled, and identified other specific goals, such as becoming a registered nurse, that were inspired by the training. All indicated a desire for additional training and indicated they would also encourage their friends to enroll if the training was offered again.

IMPLICATIONS

There are several implications from this research: they range from conclusions applicable to program policies aiming to alleviate poverty in the lives of low-literate adults to conclusions applicable to the practitioners who implement those programs. Policymakers should establish, as an element of funding formulas, provisions for program administrators to test, on a demonstration basis, the use of AMT or some other technique that focuses on mitigating the consequences of the psychosocial needs of low-literate adults. This approach would allow a number of ideas to be formulated and tested with a broad range of programs and clients, so that the best possible approach might emerge and be incorporated into other programs that share similar characteristics.

With or without the assistance of policymakers, administrators of ABE/ASE programs can provide teacher-training programs designed to equip teachers with the skills to detect students with academically inhibiting psychosocial deficiences, help them to specify the problems encountered, and provide knowledge of the means to help students to improve. Teachers who have not received such training can start to play a more constructive role in helping students cope with their psychosocial problems by: spending time with students in order to build trusting relationships; discussing and encouraging students' goal-oriented activities; and helping students to achieve a realistic mental image of the problems and opportunities involved in achieving their goals.

Researchers interested in helping low-literates improve their psychosocial self-perceptions can also pursue several approaches. Among other issues, they could test the applicability of other techniques to resolution of the psychosocial problems experienced by these individuals; identify the short- and long-term effects of AMT on ABE/ASE students or other low-literates, in different settings; and determine if AMT can be applied with equal success by persons other than trained professionals.

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LIFELONG LEARNING: EXPLORING THE ROOTS IN ANCIENT GREEK PAIDEIA

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Abstract

Lifelong learning is not a totally new phenomenon. The idea dates back to our ancient forefathers. Only in ancient Greece, however, was the idea fully operationalized. The Greeks called it Paideia. In order to ascertain what we might learn from history, the present study entailed a comparative analysis of modern conceptualizations and ancient efforts, followed by an analysis of the emergence, rooting, and demise of Paideia. Implications for present-day efforts revealed positive factors to consider and pitfalls to heed. The role of the adult educator in this process becomes evident.

One needn't be an historian to recognize that the idea of lifelong learning is far from new. As far back as the scriptures of ancient India and the writings of ancient China, learning has been proclaimed and heralded as a lifelong long process. Not until ancient Greece, however, did the unity and wholism of the ideology come to fruition in the conceptualization and operation of Paideia, a phenomenon in which the entire community served as an educational matrix for the learning of its citizens. That which the ancient Greeks accomplished in Paideia bears striking similarity to modern conceptualizations and visions of the "learning society," espoused as the ultimate goal of lifelong learning movement thrusts.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY AND METHODOLOGY

Catalyzed by this observation, the presently reported study served a multi-fold purpose and progressed through a series of steps: (a) Descriptive analyses of the current concepts of learning society, lifelong learning, and lifelong education, as well as of the ancient Greek concept and operation of Paideia were undertaken, (b) An in-depth comparative analysis of ancient efforts and modern conceptualizations juxtaposed, thus laying a groundwork and foundation for examining the relevance of Paideia to modern efforts. Results revealed the close congruence between anient efforts and modern conceptualizations, (c) An analytic inspection of possible factors contributing to the development, implementation, and decline of Paideia was guided by the following questions: What factors led to the emergence and rooting of Paideia? How was Paideia implemented in practice and how was operationalization made possible? What led to its demise? Results revealed a number of socio-political as well as attitudinal factors which were pivotal. (d) Implications were derived, guided by the following question: What can we learn from history that might help our current movement toward lifelong learning and the development of a learning society. Two varieties were explored: Positive factors inherent in ancient efforts which we might adopt or adapt to our present hopes of developing a learning society and adverse factors which led to the demise of Paideia, which we should strongly consider and understand if we hope to learn from history and, of course, avoid repeating it.

An inspection of the results yielded in each of the above steps follows. This abbreviated rendition should provide the reader with an overview of the essence of the more expanded version presented at the conference.

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DESCRIPTIVE AND COMPARATIVE ANALYSES OF MODERN CONCEPTUALIZATIONS AND ANCIENT EFFORTS

Modern Conceptualizations

Modern conceptualizations revolve around three separate but interrelated terms: lifelong learning, lifelong education, and learning society. Lifelong learning is both a philosophy and a movement. The undergirding philosophy essentially espouses the belief that continuous inquiry is an essential condition of living. As a movement, lifelong learning represents a collective, organized worldwide thrust at bringing about change in the social order, particularly as society evolves through the ongoing transformation from industrial to information society. Fashioning a learning society is the ultimate goal of the movement.

The central theme is learning, not teaching, thus the name lifelong learning, rather than lifelong education movement. Education, however, is generally a process by which learning is directed, organized, and actualized in society. As a result, lifelong education has emerged as a guiding principle and "master concept" in quantitative and qualitative transformation in the nature and mode of learning and implies, as a result, a total restructuring of the present system to put learning at the heart of all efforts.

In quantitative terms, the availability of more learning cpportunities to all ages, and the responsibility of all segments of society in this process is stressed. In qualitative terms, the development of lifelong, self-directed, self-managing learners is stressed, with the evolving growth of the individual toward maturity. A resulting change in the nature of education to emphasize learning not teaching is also stressed, as is the notion of education transcending the narrow confines of formal settings such as schools, colleges, etc.

Lifelong education may be articulated along three dimensions: (a) Vertical, (b) Horizontal, (c) Depth. The vertical dimension recognizes learning as a lifelong process and challenges society/to provide educative environments and learning opportunities for people at any age or stage of development. Horizontally, the concept encourages recongition and integration of the many agents of learning within a community (schools, nonschool organizations, and informal resources such as peers, friends, family, professional, etc.) Similarly, learning permeates all spheres of life (intellectual, emotional, physical, social, spiritual) and a concerted integration among them is urged. Finally, recongition of a gamut of learning formats from structured to unstructured rounds out the horizontal dimension. The depth dimension seeks integration among vertical and horizontal by recognizing that individuals are at different levels of being and an individual's needs among the different spheres (i.e. intellectual, spiritual, etc.) may range from simple in one area to more complex in another.

A learning society, therefore, represents a society in which self-directing, lifelong learners have available to them throughout their lives a gamut of learning opportunities and an educative environment in which all agencies and groups share the educative venture. It is a vision of a society in which education is interwoven with the social, political, and economic fabric such that education is not a system in itself, rather a responsibility of the entire society. Education, work, and leisure are likewise integrated. Within such a context, all agencies and groups share the educative venture, creating an environment in which every individual can and is encouraged to learn. In its most complete form, then, the learning society would entail a shift in the relationship between society and education. Coined by McGhee (1959), the learning society was further conceptualized by Thomas (1961) and Hutchins (1968). It was not until the publication, in 1972, of Learning To Be, the report of the UNESCO-appointed worldwide Commission on the Development of Education, that the learning society received global attention. Common elements of all conceptualizations include: unity of learning and life, educative environment, opportunities for an individual to grow, notion of work which provides simultaneous opportunities to grow, integration of work, leisure, and learning, participative citizenry, a perspective of seeing learning resources as both human and material, and others.

Movement toward a learning society, then,signifies reorganization and redefinition, not only of the educational system, but of society itself, providing a new arrangement between society and education; in the words of Jessup (1976, p. 31), "a temper, a quality of society that evinces itself in attitudes, in relationships, in social organizations."

As a result, a number of common conceptual elements to the whole movement tend to surface. Dave (1973) has pioneered perhaps the most scholarly work in the area of deriving concept-characteristics of lifelong learning. His eight summary principles are: (a) Totality, (b) Integration, (c) Flexibility, (d) Democratization, (e) Opportunity and motivation,

(f) Educability, (g) Operational modality, (h) Quality of life and learning.

Although the lifelong learning movement continues to grow and manifest itself, the actualization of a learning society is somewhat more visionary at present. It is a phenomenon, however, which was apparently actualized in ancient Greek Paideia. Learning more about ancient efforts, therefore, should greatly assist us in applying the pluses and avoiding the pitfalls inherent in such a proposition.

Ancient Efforts: A description and comparison

Ancient Greece, particularly during the 5th and 4th century B.C. (known as the Classical Period) seemed to witness the actualization of what today we might term a learning society. Neither before nor since then has any culture or envirnonment approximated this vision. Guided by the concept of Paideia, learning became a way of life in ancient Greece. An all-pervasive educational environment provided the necessary food for the nourishment of the many restless minds of its citizens. It was a learned society too. During this period a host of giants of the arts and sciences appeared.

When one talks about Paideia, "it is impossible to avoid bringing in modern expressions like civilization, culture, tradition, literature, or education. But none of them really covers what the Greeks meant by Paideia. Each ...is confined to one aspect of it; they cannot take in the same field as the Greek concept unless we employ them all together" (Jaeger, 1945, p. vi). The richness of the Greek word Paideia means both education and culture at the same time.

What we have here, then, is a holistic concept in which learning is viewed as a way of life. Education was not a separate system, rather it was an attitude toward life and apparently a contagious one at that. One may begin to note here the emerging similarities between the modern conceptualizations of a learning society as one in which a "new" integrated arrangement between society and education would ensue; recalling the definition of Jessup (1976, p. 31), "a temper, a quality of society that evinces itself in attitudes, in relationships,in social organizations."

Holism and totality, however, referred not only to the interweaving of learning with life and society, but also to the accompanying development of the whole person, from life to death, as well as among all spheres of one's being: intellectual, emotional, physical, and spiritual. In fact, these elements were extremely integral parts of Greek ideals and Paideia.

For these reasons, classical Greek Paideia emphasized a system of lifelong education starting in early childhood. Stress was placed on fertilizing the attitudes of holism, balance, rhythm, etc. and developing an attitude toward learning which would guide one through maturity and old age. With such a basis, one would ostensibly be better equipped to achieve the highest ideals of Paideia. An excellent depiction of the value of Paideia is offered in Plato's famous Allegory of the Cave (Plato, 1941). In growing and maturing holistically, with the support of an educative environment, one would recognize one's "shadow" and be better able to distinguish it from the "true self." Consequently, a better understanding of the human condition and society would ensue.

The close congruence, therefore, between ancient efforts and modern conceptualizations may be seen. Consequently, an understanding of the factors which made both the rooting and operationalization of Paideia possible, as well as the factors which led to its decline, should help us derive what we might learn from history that can help our current movement toward lifelong learning and the development of a learning society.

EMERGENCE, ROOTING, AND DECLINE OF PAIDEIA

The analytic inspection of possible factors leading to the development, implementation, and decline of Paideia was guided by the following questions: (a) Factors which led to its emergence and rooting, (b) How it was implemented in practice and how operationalization was made possible, (c) What led to its decline.

Seeds for the emergence and rooting of Paideia were planted, and taking root, even before the Persian Wars (490 B.C.). Men like Peisistratos and Solon, with their human-oriented lesgislation and beneficial measures affecting the economy, laid the foundations for a strong, well-governed, economically sound, and well-educated Athens.

It was during the 5th and 4th century, B.C. that Paideia fully took hold and came to fruition. For present purposes, our analysis is restricted to this peiod, a time when Paideia embraced a full-blown meaning of cultural education and development of the human character. We might bear in mind, however, Jaeger's point that "we are [now] accustomed to the word culture ...in a much more trivial and general sense.... The word has sunk to mean a simple anthropological concept, not a concept of value, a consciously pursued ideal," which was the Greek meaning of the term (Jaeger, 1945, p. xvii).

Propagated from the seeds of Solon's legislation, the ideals of Classical Paideia began to flourish. These seeds, which were strongly enhanced after the Persian Wars by Athenian leaders such as Aristides, Pericles, Cimon, and others, led to additional democratization, economic power, and a cultural-educational supremacy of Athens over the rest of Greece. This supremacy, moreover, was the result of the Athenian ideals of free inquiry, tolerance of views, assimilation of new or foreign ideas, ample leisure time, attraction of scholars from other cities and lands, and, above all, a state-wide compulsory educational system.

As it was operationalized in practice, a positive attitude toward learning surrounded Athenians of the 5th and 4th century, B.C. By and large, it was the environment that educated the citizen. Resources permeated the community, from cultural events and institutions to human dialogue. Of these learning opportunities, probably the most important was the everyday mingling at the agora, or market place, where many important or unimportant issues were discussed, ideas exchanged, plans made, etc. In addition to the agora exchanges, a number of other learning opportunities such as theaters, exhibits, itinerary lecturers, etc. were available. We might say that democratization of education was likewise evident. For example, the State would pay for the tickets of poor citizens who wanted to attend theatrical performances (an educational event that required an admission fee).

Other than public meetings, social activities such as personal celebrations, symposia, etc. provided additional opportunities. Plato's Symposium is a good example. Of course, the ample leisure time enjoyed by Athenian citizens gave them the opportunity to become self-directing and to view education as a lifelong process and pursuit. Through such means as Socratic dialogue individuals likewise drew upon each other as resources for learning. Thus, continuous education through a multitude of sources and resources, the economic affluence and naval power of Athens, inextricably intertwined with its political freedom and good administration, converged to form a basis for continuous growth and the rooting of Paideia.

Although Paideia flourished in Athens for centuries, it eventually met its crumbling and decline. A number of social, political, and economic factors contributed.

Social factors. It appears that, at times, Athenians did not know how to handle a steadily growing freedom. Thus, sometimes in stressful situations their power and overconfidence led them to "hybris" and arrogance. Additionally, a concomitant abuse of power resulted as Athenians started to act as "imperial" citizens, ill-treating their allies, provoking their enemies, and choosing as leaders people of questionable moral fiber. This arrogance, overconfidence, and authoritarian behavior of both citizens and leaders during the end of the 5th and throughout the 4th century resulted in the fall of Athens in 403 B.C., the rise thereafter of a short-lived oligarchic government, the sentencing of Socrates to death in 399 B.C., and intermittent civil strife until the defeat of Athens by the Macedonians in 338 B.C.

Political factors. The Peloponnesian War brought an end to an age of prosperity and political stability for Athens. After the death of Pericles and Nicias, Athens witnessed some of its worst political anomalies which affected both the outcome of the war and the stature of Athens as the champion of freedom and democracy. It seems that citizens grew tense and alarmed with the war. The resulting insecurity apparently propelled them to vote for seemingly strong leaders (such as Alcibiades) who, in actuality, by their arrogance and quest for personal aggrandizement, were weak to their own egos. Unfortunately, the populace was unable to see through the various demagogues and heed the warnings of prudent citizens such as Thucydides, Socrates, and others, who foresaw such developments.

Economic factors. With the loss of many of her former allies, Athens fell to Sparta in 403 B.C. The resulting civil strife and abuse of power had a negative effect on its existence as a financial center. Moreover, the conquests of Alexander adversely affected the city. According to Plutarch (1960), the population of Athens and Greece shrank considerably as a result of the expansion of the Greek world. Many intellectual centers experienced a brain drain to Hellenistic cities which arose in various parts of Alexander's empire. Depopulated of youth and intellect, Greece and Athens became easy prey to Roman occupation in 146 B.C.

Consequently, it appears that Paideia as a life force lost its vitality because it lost its nourishment: Political and social freedom, economic stability, humanitarian leaders, and other factors. Hopefully, a careful study and a subsequent heeding of these sign posts might help us to avoid repeating history as we further pursue the path toward a learning society.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

An understanding of positive factors inherent in ancient efforts, as well as adverse factors which led to its decline, generate a number of ways in which we might learn from history. A few highlights are presented below.

Extrapolating from positive factors which supported ancient endeavors, it would appear that Paideia or similar efforts need an environment of sufficient resources, leisure time or opportunity to engage in one's own growth, an understanding of one's part in the larger whole, humanitarian legislation, leaders who put themselves in service of the state, free exchange of ideas, and a whole host of other economic, political, social, and attitudinal variables. On the other hand, lessons to learn from the decline of ancient efforts include, among other things: teaching people how to handle freedom; how to recognize the power-hungry or potential demagogues and not mistake them for the "true" strong leaders; in general, how to select leaders, how to recognize egotistical tendencies and signs of decline, and perhaps even how to heed the warnings of "visionaries" in this regard. The pivotal role that adult education may play in this process is apparent.

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THE ELDERLY CONSUMER: DIVERSITY IN BEHAVIOR AND ATTITUDES

Nancy H. Miller[1]

Abstract

The major thrust of this study was the development of a descriptive profile based on the consumer behavior, consumer attitudes and locus of control attributes of the elderly. Implications are drawn for consumer education programs designed specifically for the elderly. Suggestions for objectives, teaching strategies and conceptual structure are made based on the subjects' demographic characteristics which produced significant differences in responses.

The elderly is one of the groups identified in recent years as having unique consumer problems, but for whom few appropriate consumer education materials and programs are available. The consumer problems of the elderly have been exacerbated by the increasing complexity and technological sophistication of the marketplace. In addition, the ability of many elderly to save in their younger years was affected by the depression and continual inflation, combined with lifetime earnings totals which were generally low. Unfortunately there has been only a limited amount of research done on the consumer attitudes, behavior and problems of older persons, that may be used as a basis for consumer education programming. The paucity of consumer education material appropriate for the elderly is shown by the Forgue, Sharp, and Garman study (1978) which found that of 1500 audiovisual consumer education materials on the market only 84 were suitable for adults and only a few of the 84 focused on older adults.

Recent studies have indicated the importance of differences among subgroups of the elderly population. For example, both Schutz et al. (1979) and Burton and Hennon (1980) found differences among subgroups in their studies. (Age groupings used in both studies were broad and included a large group of preretirement age respondents.) Lifestyle or role experience, relationships, level of activities and involvement in or away from home were found to have more effect on the consumer behavior of the elderly than age, sex, or income in the Schutz et al. study. Burton and Hennon found a difference in the degree to which subgroups felt consumer concerns but their data gave little indication of why the subgroups differed. Strumpel (1973) emphasized the need to pay attention to subjective measures of affect, adaptation and satisfaction as well as to the economic aspects of consumer behavior. Gurin and Gurin (1976) suggested that the subjective variable "locus of control" may be particularly relevant to economic attitudes and behavior.

The purpose of the study reported in this paper was to define consumer characteristics of the elderly through assessment of their consumer attitudes, consumer behavior, perception of influence on consumer behavior, and internal/external locus of control. A descriptive profile of these characteristics is developed and consumer education program recommendations are made.

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One hundred-ten women and 40 men age 62 and over residing in 15 Wisconsin communities, stratified among rural, suburban, and urban areas and selected by cluster sampling, comprised the sample. The volunteer participants in each cluster were drawn from senior citizen organizations, extension programs, housing areas such as apartments or retirement centers, and elderly who were not members of a specific organization but were identified by other elderly or by social service agencies.

In both the suburban and urban clusters 38 women and 12 men responded while in the rural cluster there were 34 women and 16 men. The sample appeared to be fairly representative of the national elderly population at the time of data collection. Current Population Reports (U.S. Commerce Department, December, 1977) indicated that the national median age of the elderly was 73 years and education ranged from 8.7 to 12 years for people 75 years and older and 62-74 years, respectively. The median age of the respondents fell within the 71-75 age group while the median educational level was completion of high school. At the time of data collection, 74 (49%) were married, 62 people (41%) were widows or widowers and the remaining 10% had either never married (n=8) or had been divorced (n=6).

Data was collected by individual interviews which allowed for freedom of subjects' response, subjects' physical limitations, and presentation of attitudinal instruments in a nonthreatening manner. All interviewing was done by the author. Demographic data of age, sex, place of residence, marital status and education were collected as independent variables.

Data relative to the consumer behavior and perception of influence of older Wisconsinites was collected using the Miller Interview Schedule. In an effort to assure that the many aspects of consumer behavior and perception of influence were included, the major categories defined by Uhl and Armstrong (1971) in their classification of consumer education programs were used as the basis for developing the interview schedule. The schedule was constructed with both categorical responses such as "yes/no", increased/decreased", and open-ended questions in which the respondents could elaborate or explain responses. Short answer interview items were analyzed by chi square test criteria.

Attitudes toward consumer concepts were measured on a semantic differential instrument developed according to the methods of Osgood et al. (1957) by Petrich, Byrne, and Miller (1976) at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. This Consumer Attitude Semantic Differential (CASD) was designed to produce a measure of the direction and strength of meaning that respondents attach to selected consumer concepts. It is composed of 23 consumer concepts which clustered into three factors by factor analysis. The Social Orientation factor consists of six concepts: Money's Worth, Economy, Inflation, Cost of Recreation, Pollution, and Unemployment. The Consumerism factor contains eight concepts: Better Business Bureau, Consumer Responsibility, Consumer Rights, Consumer Services, Durability, Government Protection, Guarantees, and Quality Standards. The third factor, Individual and Family Values, has nine concepts which have a strong affective orientation: Budget, Credit, Decision Making, Human Needs, Income Tax, Insurance, Recycling, Savings, and Value of Education.

Responses to the individual concepts were made on six bi-polar adjectival word pairs, each word pair being separated by a seven step continuum. Mean scale scores for each concept and mean factor scores were calculated for each subject and for the total group. The mean scale scores for the concepts and factors had a possible range of 1.00 to 7.00. The higher the mean score, the more optimistic was the attitude toward the concept or factor. Mean response scores for the factors and individual concepts were used in one way analysis of variance and two way unweighted means analysis of variance to test the hypotheses. The least significant difference test was used to examine the difference of means between individual subgroups for demographic variables which were statistically significant.

Literature on locus of control assessment tools was reviewed and the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (Rotter I/E) was selected for use in determining older Wisconsinites self-perceptions of locus of control. The Rotter I/E Scale is composed of 29 pairs of items, in a forced choice format. Six filler items are included to make the purpose of the test somewhat ambiguous. The scale is scored in the external direction with a possible range of 0-23.

The items deal exclusively with the subject's belief about the nature of the world and expectations about how reinforcement is controlled. Internal control in the Rotter Scale refers to individuals who believe that reinforcements are contingent on their own behavior, or their own relatively permanent characteristics. When an individual perceives reinforcement as following some action of his but not being entirely contingent upon his own action, the person is considered to have a belief in external control. External control is often associated with luck, chance, and fate. One way analysis of variance and two way unweighted means analysis of variance were used to determine significant differences in Rotter I/E scores by demographic variables and significant interactions.

DESCRIPTIVE PROFILE

The following discussion presents a profile of the elderly population's consumer behavior, attitudes, and locus of control. The first section pertains to consumer behavior and perception of influence on consumer behavior for which response distributions differed significantly from a normal distribution.

Although the sample population as a whole reflected national averages of elderly living in homes they own (70% of subjects) and holding jobs (5% of subjects), results indicated significant differences in consumer behavior among subject groups. Rural residents were most likely to have increased incomes between 1976 and 1978 while married respondents were the least likely to have had increased incomes. Suburban residents were more likely to feel they could purchase needed items than were rural or urban dwellers, although most respondents felt they could not necessarily purchase what they wanted. Credit was used less frequently by rural respondents than by suburban and urban respondents.

Access to transportation was more likely to be a problem for women than for men and for the widowed female elderly than for others. The single elderly whether widowed, divorced or never married, were likely to live alone regardless of sex. More than one half of the study's single elderly owned the homes in which they lived.

Influence in purchasing situations by other people and/or advertising was relatively the same across age groups and one third of the respondents did not feel influenced by either of these variables. Sales advertised in newspapers influenced purchasing decisions while television was viewed as a negative influence. Married respondents were likely to shop with their spouse and consider their opinion in shopping decisions. Respondents were influenced to participate in government programs since Social Security was the primary source of income.

The consumer attitudes of the older Wisconsinites are profiled in the following paragraphs. Mean attitude scores for the CASD had a possible range of 1.00 to 7.00, with 4.00 considered the neutral point on the continuum. Attitude scores between 1.00 and 4.00 were related to the negative, bad, hopeless side of the response continuum, while mean scores between 4.00 and 7.00 were related to the positive, good, hopeful end of the response continuum. The factor or concept mean scores are noted in the discussion, only concepts for which there were significant differences by demographic variables are included in the profile.

Mean attitude scores for the Social Orientation factor and concepts occurred around the neutral point (4.00) or were related to the negative side of the continuum. Attitudes toward the concept Money's Worth (4.68) were more hopeful as education increased except for respondents with 1-3 years of college. Rural residents were more positive toward Cost of Recreation (4.51) than were suburban or urban residents. Those who owned their own home were less negative toward Pollution (3.76) than subjects who lived in an apartment or home they did not own. Although all respondents held negative attitudes toward Inflation (2.77), married respondents were most negative. If respondents' income had decreased during the past two years, their attitude toward Unemployment (3.45) was negative. The most positive attitudes toward Unemployment were found among the urban divorced and rural never married subjects.

Attitudes toward the Consumerism factor and its concepts fell on the response continuum between mean attitude scores for the other two factors. Suburban residents although indicating that Consumerism (5.42) was good, were less positive toward the factor than were rural and urban residents. Suburban and urban respondents with decreased incomes were likely to have the attitude that Consumer Responsibility (5.60) was right. Rural respondents were most positive toward both Consumer Responsibility and Consumer Rights (5.63). Regardless of income men were more positive than women toward Consumer Rights. Rural respondents were most likely to have the attitude that Government Protection (5.11) was right while suburban respondents were least positive toward the concept. Subjects who lived in rural areas felt that Guarantees (5.56) and Quality Standards (5.42) were wise while suburban residents were likely to feel Guarantees were foolish and urban residents were least positive toward Quality Standards.

Of the concepts presented in the CASD, individuals have the most control over those in the third factor, Individual and Family Values with perhaps the exception of Income Tax. Men felt less positive toward the concept Budget (6.07) than did women. Respondents tended to be positive toward Budget regardless of place of residence or marital status. Rural residents were most hopeful about Value of Education (6.67) while respondents 71-75 years of age were least hopeful toward the concept.

The final section of the descriptive profile relates to the mean response scores which differed significantly by demographic variables for the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale. Respondents with higher educational attainment and paying jobs were more internally oriented than were the other respondents. Rural and urban men were more internally oriented than were the counterpart women, while for suburban residents males were more externally oriented than were females. Regardless of place of residence, respondents whose income had remained the same were more externally oriented than the other two income subgroups. However, the most externally oriented subgroup was suburban respondents whose income had decreased.

IMPLICATIONS

Implications for consumer education programs designed to meet the needs of the elderly based on the descriptive profile relate to objectives, teaching strategies, and conceptual structure. Objectives and teaching strategies should consider that the primary scource of income available to the study's elderly was Social Security and that continued inflation negatively affects a relatively stable amount of income. Consumer education programs should not focus on the myth that all elderly are poor and do not have enough money to meet their basic needs. The Bureau of Labor Statistics assumes however, that the elderly have a satisfactory inventory of clothing and household goods which seldom need to be replaced and that less money is needed to purchase gifts than in preretirement years. The participants expressed a desire for these items but felt restricted in making such purchases, therefore, objectives may need to relate to alternative ways of meeting these wants. Since differentiation was already being made by the elderly between what is needed and what is wanted, teaching strategies should focus on aiding the elderly in maximizing income in purchasing needed items so that there may be some discretionary income left for wanted items.

Problems related to home ownership such as energy savings, taxes, and buying services for home upkeep provide a focus for educational programs particularly when marital status is considered. Differences in shopping patterns and influences resulting from marital status provides additional focus for objectives.

Age appeared to be an important variable related to the problems of earnings and retirement income, especially the laws which regulate Social Security benefits and income from employment. Objectives focused on understanding and attaining an individual's consumer rights would be particularly relevant to older groups of the elderly. The positive attitude toward education shown by all age groups provides a basis for the assumption that there is an interest in education which may be built upon in the objectives and teaching strategies.

Outside sources of influence beyond the spouse did not appear to strongly affect purchasing decisions of the elderly. One-third of the elderly individuals in the study did not feel influenced by other people or advertising in purchasing decisions. However, newspaper advertising of sales was perceived influential in purchasing decisions and television advertising was seen as a negative influence. Education programmers will need to carefully plan strategies related to these findings. Thus, both objectives and teaching strategies relating to influence on purchasing decisions might focus on creating an awareness by the elderly of advertising as a source of knowledge particularly as related to label information, purchasing of generic drugs and guarantees. Objectives should also relate to the interpretation and understanding of sale advertising in order to aid the elderly in recognizing when a savings can actually be realized from purchasing a sale item.

The conceptual structure of the consumer education programs should be organized around the CASD factors and concepts. Emphasis should be given to the Social Orientation Factor and the concepts within the Factor as the mean attitude scores of the Wisconsin elderly were more pessimistic toward this Factor and concepts than toward the Consumerism and Individual and Family Values Factors and the concepts. Although attitudes toward the concepts within the Consumerism and Individual and Family Values Factors were positive, the significant differences in mean attitude scores by demographic variables do have implications for program planning.

Delivery mode for instruction considers that elderly females especially are likely to have transportation problems. Since females make up the larger proportion of the elderly population, delivery mode decisions must assume that consumer education programs will be taken to where the elderly are rather than they coming to the educational agency.

The Rotter I-E Locus of Control scale provided data related to motivation in determining teaching strategies to be used in the curriculum. Thus, teaching strategies should focus on the feelings of control and self actualization. Elderly who have these characteristics will probably be able to express their own needs for education. Learning strategies should be more than a superficial exposure at the knowledge level to the material. Opportunity should be provided for the elderly to conceptualize, apply, and evaluate the information presented.

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EVALUATION OF THE SENIOR CENTER HUMANITIES PROGRAM

Harry R. Moody, Ph.D.[1]

Abstract

This evaluation study documents the design and impact of a large lifelong learning program in the humanities for senior citizens. The national sample data and analysis has implications for the design of adult education offerings in the liberal arts for mature persons.

Introduction. The Senior Center Humanities Program (SCHP), developed by the National Council on the Aging in 1976, is now over five years old and has reached nearly 70,000 older Americans. Its effort to bring humanities learning to senior citizens was the subject last year of a comprehensive evaluation covering description, activities, impact, and analysis of the operation of the program. The evaluation results suggest that lifelong learning in the humanities can have broad, indeed universal appeal, insofar as the humanities are understood not only as disciplines but rather as intrinsic activities of man's symbolic culture: linguistic expression, philosophical thinking, and historical consciousness.

Methodology and Design of the Evaluation. The SCHP identified six major objectives: (1) Enriching the lives of older people through the humanities; (2) Encouraging reflection on life experience; (3) Promoting appreciation of values of one's peers; (4) Stimulating intellectual creativity; (5) Expanding program offerings in agencies serving the elderly; (6) Stengthening links to community cultural resources. To evaluate the program's success in achieving these goals the Evaluation Study employed a multi-method research design drawing on qualitative and quantitative data. Survey questionnaires included both scaled response items and written comments from respondents. Separate questionnaires were developed for Site Directors, Discussion Leaders, and Participants. Each questionnaire included items covering demographic data, participation figures, group activities and program impact, and exploration of issues of special concern.

The sampling plan for data collection involved a careful probability sample representing all groups in the program. With returns of nearly 1,000 questionnaires in all, there was a successful return rate of 50%-60%. Examination of response patterns supported the validity of questionnaire scales employed.

Descriptive Profile of the Program. With current offerings at approximately 1,200 sites, in both rural and urban locations, the SCHP has grown dramatically in recent years. 3/4ths of these sites are community senior centers, while the remaining ¼ are nursing homes. Local discussion groups tended to number 8 to 20 members, with average attendance of 13 participants. Local volunteer Discussion Leaders play a key role in directing these groups. Discussion Leaders on the whole proved to be well educated and generally had prior college or graduate study of the humanities. 1/5th of the Discussion Leaders were community volunteers, while 2/5ths were themselves staff members from agencies serving the elderly. Senior citizen Participants in the program were largely female, 3/5ths age 55-75, and 2/5ths 76 or over. In educational level, Participants closely matched the educational distribution among the U.S. aged population: ¼ with an elementary school education, another ¼ with college experience, and the largest proportion having high school study.

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Materials in the Program. The most widely used study units in the program were The Remembered Past, A Family Album, Exploring Local History, and Images of Aging. Smaller numbers of Participants had used Americans and the Land and the more recent Work and Life and The Search for Meaning. Discussion Leaders overwhelmingly rated the SCHP materials very high in quality, including the cassette tapes that were effective for the visually handicapped elderly. Discussion Leaders and Site Directors agreed that the SCHP materials represented a high intellectual level of humanities learning, but the materials generally proved capable of reaching people of both high and low educational levels. With their multi-ethnic and multi-regional content, the study units also proved adaptable to local sites in different parts of the country.

Activities of the Groups. SCHP discussion groups gave great stress to reminiscence and reflection on life experiences, but these activities were directly linked to sustained review of the study units and references to those texts. Participants commonly brought in outside materials (books, stories, cultural materials and sources of humanities learning outside the study units). While the SCHP discussion groups were non-threatening experiences, not like "school," there was a surprising prevalence of lectures by Discussion Leaders. Discussion Leaders for SCHP groups enriched their own groups by bringing in books, stories or poems.

Leadership and Site Support. The most important element for success of SCHP groups was the role of the Discussion Leader and the support of the local Site Director. All evidence suggests that, in broad terms, the SCHP was extraordinarily successful in attracting excellent Discussion Leaders capable of organizing intellectual material and managing the dynamics of a group discussion. On the other hand, Site Directors at local sites where the program had been "dormant" (not offered) the previous year, overwhelmingly mentioned "difficulty recruiting a Discussion Leader" as their major problem. The Evaluation turned up some suggestion for guidance in working with special populations, such as the frail elderly, but, overall , recruitment was far more of a problem than training or quality control. In most instances, Discussion Leaders devoted an amount of time equal to or exceeding the weekly time spent with the group in preparing for the group meeting. Most Discussion Leaders, once having become involved with the program, remain involved: the dropout rate is no more than 15%. While retention appears quite successful, the most prevalent causes for dropouts were career or personal time conflicts.

Along with difficulty in recruiting a Discussion Leader, Site Directors at dormant sites also identified less prominent causes for program discontinuity, such as decline in interest by Participants, scheduling difficulties, or need for center staff time support. Nonetheless, site involvement in the program appears quite high. The dormancy rate for sites in any given year is no more than 19%, but the absolute dropout rate for sites is much less, since sites often pick up the program again as local conditions change or problems are overcome. A further point to be noted is the initiative of Site Directors in sharing SCHP materials with other sites for use with their groups, a pattern occurring in about a ¼ of sites reporting. Formal and informal communication networks among sites in the program could well be strengthened in the future.

Overall Appraisal of Program Impact. Participants, Discussion Leaders, and Site Directors all gave the Senior Center Humanities Program exceptionally high ratings for overall program impact. Between 85% and 95% of Participants intend to continue participating, with non-participation most often caused by physical problems, transportation difficulties, etc. 3/4ths of the Discussion Leaders gave a "superior" or "above average" rating to the program, and Site Directors, too, were enthusiastic about the program. In comparing the SCHP with other rather extensive cultural or enrichment programming at their sites, Site Directors in a substantial majority rated the SCHP as comparatively better and nearly 3/4ths described it as important for their sites.

Impact On Participants. Large majorities of both Participants and Discussion Leaders agreed that the SCHP had major impact on Participants in the following areas:

- Helped participants' sense of self-worth
- Established or strengthened participants' general relationship with peers
- Generated desire for continuing involvement in humanities programs
- Improved skills of verbal self-expression
- Strengthened appreciation of universality and diversity of symbolic cultural forms
- Deepened reflection on philosophic and historical sources of meaning
- Stimulated desire for intellectual growth and further learning
- Stimulated additional reading and use of library

These activities constitute a reasonable description of important linguistic, philosophic and historical elements of the humanities. Thus, it seems clear that the SCHP promoted humanities learning for those who participated in the program. In addition to the explicit humanities learning, one must note social and psychological gains such as curiosity, self-confidence and appreciation of the views of others.

Although the impact of the program on Participants was overwhelmingly positive, several areas of concern were identified. While reminiscence proved effective with most groups, a few expressed the desire for more attention to present-day topics. The earliest SCHP study units concentrate on history, but recently introduced units have shifted to a more contemporary focus, so this problem appears to be corrected. Although there was evidence of increased appreciation of books, use of the library was the area showing a smaller gain than other areas.

Impact on Local Sites. The SCHP had an important impact on local sites as well as on individual participants themselves. At local sites the program:

- Generated spinoff activities in humanities or cultural programs
- Enriched the cultural life of the facility
- Enhanced morale of facility staff
- Promoted a positive community image of the elderly
- Strengthened links to community cultural resources

Along with this strong overall positive impact on local sites, Site Directors reported a mixed record in nursing homes. While some of these sites were dramatically successful, in others, patients were too frail to benefit from the program.

Impact on Discussion Leaders. There was evidence that serving as a volunteer in the SCHP had a very positive impact on Discussion Leaders. Impressive majorities of Discussion Leaders reported that involvement in the program had the following results:

- Expanded appreciation of capacities and interests of older people
- Gained ability and appreciation for using humanities as a vehicle for working with groups
- Acquired a sense of personal satisfaction
- Gained new insights into the humanities

Summary. This Evaluation Study can support several conclusions about the Senior Center Humanities Program. First, the program succeeded in reaching all of the objectives set for it initially and has now generated a body of curriculum materials of proven effectiveness. Second, volunteer Discussion Leaders, working with those materials, can promote humanities learning among diverse groups of elderly representative of the American aging population as a whole. Third, discussion groups are most successful when they actively involve senior citizens and draw on their special strengths and interests. Fourth, the SCHP has broad, documented impact on the local sites, the Discussion Leaders, and the Participants themselves. This impact, including better understanding of what the humanities are and desire for continued humanities learning, has important implications for public humanities programming in general.

FINDING A WAY OUT
ADULT EDUCATION IN HARLEM DURING THE GREAT DEPRESSION

Charlotte T. Morgan[1]

Abstract

The objective of this study was to assess the relationship between perceptions of the educational needs of Harlem's black adults held by program administrators and adult education practitioners and the design of adult education programs offered by public and private agencies. The research methodology was historical. It was found that conflict existed between perceived societal, institutional, and learner needs and actual program design. Containment of the population rather than individual control of one's destiny became a major force. Adult education in restropect was an imperfect liberating tool.

The gap between adult education in the black community and that available to the larger society was acknowledged by leaders within the adult education movement in the American Association for Adult Education's (AAAE) first handbook edited by Dorothy Rowden (1936, p. 124). With the onset of the depression, this limited access was in danger of being further reduced. Federal intervention proved to be crucial as expanded activity throughout the nation meant intensification of efforts on behalf of Blacks.

PERCEPTIONS OF BLACK ADULT EDUCATION: THE PUBLIC VIEW

Within the federal government, four agencies--the Office of Education (OE), the Works Progress Administration (WPA), the National Youth Administration (NYA), and the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC)--administered educational programs. All but the CCC appointed Blacks whose specific tasks were to oversee programs for black education. Their efforts to close the gap raised questions with regard to the determination of the needs of black adults and the implications thereof for educational programs.

Ambrose Caliver was OE's first senior specialist in the education of Blacks. In 1930 he convened the National Advisory Council on the Education of Negroes whose purpose was to interpret educational needs and serve as liaison with the black community. He advocated a philosophy of education which included teaching black history to all racial groups in order to encourage personal and racial pride, increase appreciation of the contributions and potential of Blacks, and highlight the place of Blacks in American society. He stressed that though the needs of black adults were greater, their educational programs should have the same objectives as those planned for other groups--ultimate integration into America and enhancement of group contributions to the national culture.

The WPA specialist in Negro education, James A. Atkins, was both an advocate for black people and a trouble shooter for the program. He, too, saw black people as having a greater need. His concept of education meant an emphasis on "tool subjects" which would help people meet the demands of everyday life. The administrator's educational philosophy as outlined in 1938 emphasized the greater handicaps, the immediate needs, and the interests of Blacks. Like his colleague in the Office of Education, his objective was "the integration of American society."

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The NYA served single adults living with parents on relief. Its office of black concerns was headed first by Juanita Sadler and later by the more reknown Mary M. Bethune. Mrs. Bethune, the founder of Bethune-Cookman College, was an exceptional woman with enormous personal prestige. These attributes did not, however, prevent criticism of her division. Critics claimed that the program encouraged dependency and responded inadequately to black needs.

The CCC, unlike the NYA, enjoyed an enviable reputation despite segregation in personnel and location. Although the CCC never hired a national administrator for black interests, it did after concerted pressure hire black educational advisors and local administrators. In 1938, Howard Oxley, CCC educational director argued that white officials were in a "naturally strategic poistion" to better interpret the educational needs of black enrollees. He felt that, in general, with the exception of some "peculiarities," black educational problems were the same as those of whites. The peculiarities he noted involved in part the necessity to adjust the enrollees to the contemporary situation.

PERCEPTIONS OF BLACK ADULT EDUCATION: THE PRIVATE VIEW

Although government sponsorship brought adult education to large numbers of black people, its emergency nature and the practice of discrimination by local agencies meant sustained black participation would require other forces. Alain Locke, then an AAAE consultant, and Eugene Kinckle Jones, executive secretary of the National Urban League, tried unsuccessfully to get the AAAE to staff an office for the promotion of adult education among Blacks. The association's reluctance was rooted in its interpretation of adult education's purpose. Morse Cartwright's (1935, pp. 37-39) short history of the adult education movement explained his position as executive director of AAAE. He wrote that he was opposed to the concepts of adult education for "righting an educational wrong" or "securing for the underpriviledged that which had been withheld." Nonetheless, the association did give financial support to an interracial organization, the Associates in Negro Folk Education, whose purposes were the promotion of adult education and black history and the publishing of texts in black history, race relations, and adult education.

For many black educators, an adult education curriculum should include black history. Locke (1934, p. 420) argued that the proper use of racial themes would be of value to all sectors of society. He and Ira De Reid (1936, pp. 12-17), industrial secretary of the New York Urban League, both recognized the political value of such a curriculum which Reid felt would assist Blacks in developing appropriate responses to the problems of discrimination and segregation. Carter G. Woodson, the founder of the National Association for the Study of Negro Life and History wrote in 1933 of the need to find an alternative to the traditional school system. He urged that Blacks turn to adult education for "an awakening of the masses" to "new economic and cultural viewpoints." These new "viewpoints" were the goals of many adult educators. However, the adult education programs subsequently offered were black only to the extent of the inclusion of black history and culture. They failed to deal with issues of discrimination and racism.

Adult Education in Practice

In Harlem, private agencies were the primary providers of adult education until 1935, when the entry of the government through the WPA changed this pattern. It made possible the ascendancy of the board of education, which offered adult education under two categories: the traditional city evening schools and the WPA. New York Age reports between 1927 and 1941 reveal that the traditional program experienced little growth in either curriculum or sites. Elementary subjects, skills courses (open only to women), naturalization classes, literacy education, and trade schools (open only to those already employed) continued to be the norm. The opening of Harlem Evening High School was the sole exception.

The WPA programs were begun in Harlem in the fall of 1935. During their existence, 35 centers were opened in churches, community centers, political clubs, libraries, schools, and voluntary associations. The 46 courses made available were primarily vocational and open to all (trade classes were the exception) over the age of 17. During the peak year of 1939, the spring enrollment, noted by the Age on December 30th, exceeded 10,000, which was 8 percent of the city total of 120,000. Supporters of the WPA program considered it a lifesaver for the community and vital for the rehabilitation of the unemployed.

Between 1936 and 1939, the WPA co-sponsored forums with unions, civic clubs, settlement houses, and neighborhood associations. In Harlem, more than 122 such groups hosted this popular and often controversial activity. Eventually, the controversy engendered by the free-wheeling discussions and radical ideas led to citywide cancellation by the cost-conscious and conservative WPA administrator, who substituted public lectures under board of education sponsorship.

Three other federal agencies, the CCC, the NYA, and the Worker's Education Bureau, offered adult education to a specialized clientele. The under-educated enrollees in CCC workcamps were at first subjected to the paternalism of cautious white educational advisors who were gradually replaced by Blacks. Camp Breeze Hill, in upstate New York, became one of the nation's best CCC facilities. The program at Breeze Hill included diverse educational offerings that reflected the best elements of the Harlem community, while programs at other black camps stressed vocational counseling and job training, with instruction limited to proven areas of black employability.

The NYA's educational program grew out of the need for social control. Its programs stressed training and service rather than educational achievement. In Harlem, 500 young adults under the supervision of the YWCA attended occasional conferences and short training courses meant to expand their skills. Special educational services were not maintained untill a woodworking center was introduced in 1939. This center subsequently became a part of the Youth Work Defense Project.

The third and final federal project was workers' education (classes in labor economics , theater, English, and black history), which was brought to Harlem as a result of the efforts of the Harlem Workers' Council (under urban league sponsorship) in 1935. Despite extensive recruitment efforts, the classes met hostility and suspicion from public school administrators who supported more traditional approaches and leftist radicals who feared government involvement in union developments. Ultimately the board of education triumphed: It gained control and workers' education came under its jurisdiction.

Although the bulk of opportunities for adult education during the depression were federally financed, the New York Urban League and other private agencies continued to offer programs representative of their missions. The league instituted courses in semi-skilled areas and opened an arts center. With state support, the league became a major administrator of Harlem adult education until WPA programs were initiated by the board of education. Under league sponsorship, the Harlem Workers' Council aggressively promoted black participation in organized labor. League historians, Parris and Brooks (1971, p. 260), reported that this council and the more than 70 others organized nationally were particularly useful as study groups for learning protest and organizing techniques.

The YWCA offered an accredited trade school to women and eventually to men with courses in household science, office skills, dressmaking, practical nursing, and beauty culture. Outside of the trade school format, adults were offered conferences, lectures, study groups, and forums in areas as diverse as black history, religion, speech, and personal relationships.

Arthur's 1934 study of black YMCAs which cited the Harlem association as surpassing all others, is misleading since few of the programs were actually supported by the "Y." Association-sponsored classes represented a potpourri of interests of no particular sequence or philosophy, though African history, religion, and slaves enjoyed continuous popularity.

Private philanthropy rather than government initiative financed the leadership which the public library took in adult education in Harlem after 1932. Reid's (1936, pp. 40-41) profile of the two-year experiment described its extensive program in the arts, politics and government, music, literature, and black history. Although it received many accolades, the project exhibited a failing common to many adult education programs: It did not attract the ordinary citizen. After the experiment, classes, forums, and occasional lectures were conducted sporadically and in less volumn. By 1941, the role of the 135th Street library was greatly reduced. With the retirement of the branch librarian and new administration at the central library, commitment to adult education wavered.

The adult education efforts of private Harlem based clubs, study groups, cultural and civic associations, and independent schools supplemented and competed with those of local and national public agencies. The community organizations held regularly scheduled debates, lectures, classes, and discussion groups on local politics, black history and culture, vocational development, and economic survival. Although independent commercial and trade schools met varied fates, the newest among them were the least likely to survive.

CONCLUSION

Going to school to find a way out of the doldrums of the depression occupied the time of many of Harlem's unemployed. In the midst of want, there was an abundance of activities planned to cause forgetfulness or acceptance, and occasionally, change. Although there was recognition of the distressing circumstances of black life, programs addressed the symptons rather than the cause. With few exceptions, consideration of race relations was handled with extreme caution or left to sidewalk orators. The actual translation of adult education goals such as self-determination and self-actualization into program proved difficult. Instead, control of the population became an unmistakable element. It was no accident that Harlem was swamped by adult education endeavors after the riot of 1935. Federal funding changed the adult education movement: It restructured sponsorship and curriculum.

In contrast to the Great Depression, the current economic crisis projects a diminished federal responsibility. Consequently, we adult educators are presented with a dilemma and an opportunity. The dilemma rests in our interest in preserving federal input that has both extended and restricted educational practice. As an alternative we might once again look to the private sector and devote our energies to assisting community based providers. The opportunity is the challenge of preserving the distinction between adult education and education for adults. Adult education which promotes the ability to "be" may create tension when the learners are in the special circumstances of historic oppression. Might not we acknowledge the possibility of that tension occurring and begin to initiate reforms that truly help our students to find the way out of the circumstances in which they have been submerged?

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LEARNING ACTIVITY AND LIFE STAGE: TWO STUDIES OF WOMEN PROFESSIONALS

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Abstract

This paper reports two studies of women professionals (home economists and nurses) which investigated the relationships between learning activity and life stage. Respondents assigned themselves to one of the McCoy (1977) stages based on the developmental tasks they were concerned with. Data on professional and personal learning were obtained by adapting the Tough (1971) interview schedule to a written questionnaire format. While lifestage did not influence the absolute amount of learning, there were, for the home economists, differences in the relative amounts of professional and personal learning undertaken in each stage.

This paper reports the results of two studies of women professionals designed to explore the relationships between life stage and learning activity. The paper will: (1) discuss the use of the McCoy (1977) framework for examining lifestage, (2) discuss the adaptation of the Tough (1971) interview schedule for use in a written questionnaire format, and (3) present some of the results of the studies.

THE STUDIES

The first study (Pardoe, 1981) was of a selected group of home economists in the province of Saskatchewan who were employed in business or industry, self-employed, retired, or full time homemakers. A mail questionnaire was used with 178 of 272 eligible respondnts replying, a rate of 65.5%. They ranged in age from 23 to 78 years, with a mean age of 40.2. Thirty-eight percent were not working, 40% were working part time and the remaining 22% were working full time. Eighty-six percent were married and 73% had children. Sixty-one percent lived in cities, with the rest living on farms and in small towns.

The second study (Rose, forthcoming) included all public health nurses employed with the Community Health Services Branch of the Saskatchewan Department of Health who had been on staff for one or more years. There were 128 nurses who met this criterion. The questionnaire was administered in March and April 1981 to groups of nurses at the 10 monthly regional staff conferences. Nurses who were absent from the conference were sent a questionnaire and asked to return it by mail. Using these procedures, 124 completed questionnaires were received, a response rate of 97%. The ages of these respondents ranged from 22 to 64 years. Nearly all (89%) were working full time. Just under half (47.6%) were living in a city, with 19% on farms and the remainder in towns and villages. Sixty-two percent were married and 40% had children.

We faced two major decisions in these studies: first, how to determine which lifestage an individual is in, and second, how to obtain a quantitative measure of an individual's learning acitivity for a period of time. We'll look at each in turn.

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DETERMINING LIFE STAGE

Life stage is defined as a chronological period in a person's life span which is characterized by personal growth as a response to changing social roles and developmental tasks. The concept implies that "everyone's development consists of the same stages, encountered at about the same time, and resolved in a manner similar to that of most other living human beings in the world." (McCoy, 1977, p. 15) Writers have identified varying numbers of chronological periods and described the tasks, problems, concerns, and growth opportunities associated with each. These range from Havighurst's (1952) broad grouping of early adulthood, middle age, and later maturity, to finer age categorizations such as those described by Gould (1972; 1978) and Levinson (1978).

An early decision was how to assign individuals to a particular life stage. Basically we could assign individuals to stages using their actual ages, or we could ask individuals to assign themselves to stages. We selected the second alternative, believing that it was preferable to allow individuals to determine for themselves which life stage they were currently experiencing.

We selected the McCoy (1977) framework as the basis for examining life stage. This framework includes a listing of specific tasks which confront the adult at each of 7 stages. We did not identify the stages by their titles, nor did we include the age categories. Rather we simply identified the stages by number — 1 through 7. Thus McCoy's "Becoming Adult, 23-28" became simply Stage 2. By doing this we hoped the respondents would assign themselves to a stage on the basis of the tasks they were facing rather than responding to a label and/or an age group. We made minor changes in the wording of some tasks, and we omitted two tasks which were common to all stages. Respondents were asked to read through the stages and then decide which stage best described their current situation.

One concern we had was whether individuals would resist "putting themselves in boxes." Therefore our instructions were worded to recognize this problem. For example, the home economists were told that: "most people do not fit perfectly into one specific stage, but usually one stage will describe them better than others."
The nurses were reminded that "no one fits one category alone, but there is often one lifestage that describes you better than others."
Then respondents were asked to complete two sentences:
The stage that best describes me now is Stage ____
Other stages, if any, that I am involved in at the present time are __________

The results were encouraging. In the study of home economists, only 5 of the 178 respondents did not indicate their life stage — 97% did assign themselves to a stage. Of the 124 nurses, 8 did not reply to the question on lifestage and 5 indicated that they were unable to decide on one stage. Thus 89.5% assigned themselves to a life stage. Seventy-five percent of the nurses also listed other stages with which they were concerned. It seems likely that providing respondents with an opportunity to list other stages is worthwhile. It recognizes that adults don't always fit neatly into one category, and this recognition may encourage a higher response rate on the question. (The analysis of which other stages respondents listed is interesting, but beyond the scope of this paper.)

We did an analysis to see how self-assigned life stage compared to age-assigned life stage. Overall 54% of the nurses and 57% of the home economists would have been assigned to the same life stage to which they assigned themselves, if we had used age as the basis. Putting it another way, over 40% of both groups would have been categorized as being in a life stage that they themselves had not selected as the stage which best described them. Many of these women's chronological ages were reasonably close to the age ranges included in the McCoy framework for the stage they had selected. However, there was a significant number whose chronological ages were quite far removed from what the framework suggested. For example, 8 of the 38 nurses who assigned themselves to Stage 2 were older than the 23-28 age range: their ages were 30, 31, 33, 40, 41, 45, 53, and 59. These women would have been assigned to Stages 3, 4, 5, and 6 on the basis of chronological age, whereas on the basis of the tasks they were facing they placed themselves in Stage 2. The other life stages showed similar patterns, suggesting that chronological age is often an imperfect predictor of perceived life stage.

MEASURING LEARNING ACTIVITY

We wished to obtain a quantitative measure of the respondents' learning, both professional and personal, for a specified period of time — in this case, the number of hours spent on learning activities in the preceeding 12 month period. The first draft of the questionnaire included a series of questions related to attendance at learning events organized by the major institutional and organizational sponsors of adult education programs. Questions about use of particular methods (e.g. self-study, reading, etc.) were also included. The questionnaire was pretested on a group of 20 dietitians and home economics teachers; they reported a mean of 99.1 hours spent in all learning activities for a 12 month period. This low figure led us to look at alternative ways of obtaining information. We were convinced that this group of women professionals, most of whom were working, would have spent more than an average of 99 hours in one year on learning. And so we completely revised that section of the questionnaire, using as a basis the interview schedule developed by Tough (1971).

The Tough interview schedule uses a series of cues and pauses for the recall and recording of learning activities, and requires approximately two hours to complete in its original form. In our study, the verbal cues were presented in written form, with the instructions listed in a series of steps. Respondents were provided with a separate "learning activity sheet" on which to record their learning activities. The cues used were: random recall of the past year's learning activities, a review of activities month by month, some roles and activities home economists may have engaged in, a list of institutions offering learning activities, a subject list similar to Tough's, and a learning methods list. Tough (1971) feels that this probing technique encourages and assists the adult in recalling learning activities. To complete the learning activity sheet, respondents were asked to designate their activities as professional or personal, to record the learning hours spent on each activity, and to specify the method(s) used. As they did this they were asked to continue adding activities they recalled that had not been previously recorded.

A field test of the revised questionnaire with an additional 10 dietitians and teachers indicated that we were on the right track: mean total learning hours was 401 hours, a big increase from 99 hours. There is no doubt in our minds that the use of the Tough cues greatly aids recall and results in more complete data on learning activities. One disadvantage of this approach, however, is that it is more demanding of respondents. Respondents in the final field test complained that the questionnaire took too long to complete; this may have been a factor in the 65% response rate to the mail survey. Researchers should therefore be aware that they will need to put additional effort into followup in order to obtain high response rates when this approach is used in a mail questionnaire format. We did not encounter the same problem in the nurses' study since the questionnaire was administered at a staff meeting at which 1 1/2 hours had been set aside for its completion. Using the Tough approach results in much more complete data, an advantage which more than offsets the additional time and effort required to use it.

LIFE STAGE AND LEARNING

In both studies analyses were done to examine the relationships between life stage and learning. Overall, only 10 of 156 home economists did not report any learning activity; all the nurses reported some learning hours. The total mean hours per year was 330 hours for home economists, with a range from 0 to 2099 hours; for the nurses the mean was 382.6, with a range from 39 to 1593. There were some differences between life stages, but the variability within each stage was so great that we were unable to conclude that total amount of learning varied by life stage. This was true for both groups of women.

The breakdown of learning hours into professional and personal learning is more useful (see Table 1). Data for the home economists show that those in Stages 2, 3, and 4 engage in nearly the same mean number of total learning hours. However, the percentage of total learning time which is devoted to professional learning increases from 34% for Stages 2 and 3 to 52% for Stage 4. This shift appears to reflect the tasks undertaken at each stage. Respondents in Stages 5 through 7 spent proportionately less time on professional learnng and more time on personal learning than home economists in earlier stages of the

Table 1

Mean Total Learning Hours and Percentage of Total Hours Spent on Professional Learning For Home Economists and Nurses by Life Stage

	Home Economists			Nurses		
Life Stage	N	Total Hours	Percentage Professional	N	Total Hours	Percentage Professional
1				1	86.0	66
2	49	334.1	34	38	398.5	64
3	28	339.6	34	21	445.7	63
4	44	345.2	52	32	351.9	59
5	9	226.7	22	7	353.7	72
6	7	573.2	21	3	210.0	81
7	19	200.9	8	9	384.0	60
Total	156	330.0	35	116	382.6	63

life cycle, a finding which reflects the decreasing importance of work in these later life stages. The results for the nurses were somewhat different. Although the total number of learning hours did not differ much from the home economists, a higher proportion of learning hours was spent on professional learning — an average of 63% for the nurses versus 35% for the home economists. The nurses also did not show much variation in the relative amount of professional learning from stage to stage — the percentages ranged from 59% to 81%. This difference is likely attributable to the fact that all the nurses were working, and all had participated in regularly scheduled in-service education — whereas only 62% of the home economists were employed outside the home. Additional analysis showed that the relationship between employment status and professional learning activity was a strong one — much stronger than the relationship between life stage and learning. Home economists who were not working outside the home reported a mean of only 11 hours of professional learning for the year, as compared to 128 hours for part time workers and 285 hours for full time workers. Past work patterns and future work expectations were also related to the amount of professional learning undertaken.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR PROGRAMMING

1. We concluded that there are major differences in age-assigned versus perceived life stage. The programmer who plans to program around life stages should be aware that chronologial age is only a rough indicator of life stage. Individuals who identify with a particular stage may represent a wide age range. Programs which are advertised as being planned for a specific age group may thus inhibit adults who fall outside that group from participating — even though the content may be highly relevant to the tasks they are currently facing. Conversely adults who attend a program based on their chronological life stage may not find all of the content relevant. Programs should include an opportunity for individuals to deal with unresolved tasks from previous stages, and even with anticipated tasks from future stages. This is reinforced by the finding that the majority of women indicated that they were concerned with one or more life stages in addition to the one they most identified with.

2. Our finding that the total quantity of learning does not vary greatly by life stage, suggests that it may well be more important to look for qualitative differences in learning between adults in different stages. We found one type of qualitative difference among the home economists — the shift in the relative amounts of professional versus personal learning. A more detailed analysis of the nature of the learning undertaken at each stage would seem useful.

3. These studies have identified the importance of work-related variables to the nature of the learning undertaken by women professionals. Thus developmental tasks related to work are of major importance in the lives of women professionals, as in the lives of their male counterparts.

4. The use of the Tough questions confirmed once again the importance of self-directed learning — both personal and professional — in the total learning undertaken by adults.

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PROBLEM SOLVING IN NON-FORMAL SETTINGS BY LITERATE VS. NON-LITERATE ADULTS

John M. Peters
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Abstract

The focus of this research was to compare problem solving approaches undertaken by literate vs. non-literate adults and to develop a new methodology for analyzing first-person accounts of adult problem solving/learning experiences. The analysis is a form of content analysis of protocol data, based on verbal reports of adults' accounting for their own problem solving/learning activities. Findings revealed differences among literate and non-literate adults with regard to factors such as the use of rule structures, ramifications of choices, and short-term vs. long-term effects.

INTRODUCTION

Researchers and practitioners agree that adults attach great importance to the utility of what they learn in formal and non-formal settings. Motivational orientation studies (e.g., Boshier, 1976) as well as studies of self-directed learners (Tough, 1971; 1977) support the notion of a strong pragmatic orientation of adults who participate in formal and non-formal educational activities. The largely pragmatic orientation of adult learners suggests a close relationship between their learning activities and problems they experience. Thus, researchers interested in exploring the dynamics of adult learning could reasonably adopt a problem solving framework for their studies. If it can be assumed that learning results from an adult's attempt to resolve a problem, then focusing on the way adults solve problems may aid educators in better understanding the processes that lead to learning.

Of particular concern to adult educators are the special needs of non-literate adults.[2] This population presents a challenge to educators who wish to understand the personal and social forces that influence their ability to cope with daily living tasks. Although limited in its research evidence, the literature in adult education characterizes the non-literate with respect to such factors as academic achievement, aptitude, motivation, and values.

In recent years, increased attention has been given to the role that "functional literacy" plays in adults' ability to cope with problems in their lives. The 1973 Adult Performance Level Survey revealed widespread inadequacies among adults with regard to their ability to cope with routine problem solving activities. Although such research does not explain why some adults fail to function effectively in problematic situations, the results strongly suggest that the ability to read and use written communications plays a crucial role in functional literacy.

Whether the lack of ability to read influences how adults approach problems in general is an open question. However, it has been suggested that children who differ in reading ability also differ in their approach to solving problems. The literature of cognitive psychology supports the assumption that the problem solver's understanding of a problem domain plays an important role in the way he/she solves a particular problem in that domain (Reif, 1980). Insofar as the ability to read has a bearing on the access to and/or ability to use written information, the ability to read may be a factor in the approach adults take to resolve problems that involve their use of written communications. The influence literacy has on how an adult approaches a problem and the nature of the reasoning strategies employed yield important implications for educators who are familiar with reasoning patterns of literate adults, but are also interested in learning more about the reasoning patterns of non-literate adults. This information would be useful in designing instruction or other helping programs for the non-literate adult.

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[2] Non-literate adults are persons who read on or below a fourth-grade level.

The focus of this research was to compare problem solving/learning approaches undertaken by literate vs. non-literate adults and to develop a new methodology for analyzing first-person accounts of adult problem solving/learning experiences.

BACKGROUND

The past few years have seen a rather remarkable increase in the number of investigators interested in reasoning and problem solving processes, and in the number of contexts in which these processes have been studied. Beginning with some early studies of reasoning in Chess masters and studies of problem solving in relatively circumscribed artificial problems, the door has opened to research in reasoning and decision making processes in such diverse areas as medical diagnosis, solution of complex problems in physics and mathematics, psychiatric diagnosis, stock market prognostication, and legal problem solving.

In examining the research in reasoning and problem solving, two trends are clear, and may be causative factors behind the growth in interest in this area. The first of these trends is the increasing realization that much of what people do is determined by the peculiarities and particularities of the situations or contexts in which they find themselves. Some investigators have suggested that this is the reason that psychologists (and social scientists in general) have been generally limited in their ability to provide theories and findings obtained from laboratory research which generalize to the "real world." Several commentators have observed that the practical implication is to demand that research in human thought and action be studied in situations that either *are* the real world that we wish to generalize to (i.e., naturalistic research), or are at least representative in the essential elements of the real world that we wish to understand.

The second trend is reflected in the notion that what is important in understanding the way in which people think and learn is not the processes *by which* the cognitive machine operates, but the content *on which* it operates. To put it another way, the way in which we think and perceive the world around us is based upon what we know, and this knowledge is what governs what we do.

Based upon the perceived importance of content of knowledge in reasoning (as opposed to process), most recent research has focused on the knowledge aspect of reasoning; both with respect to what is known and how this knowledge is translated into action. What, for example, does an expert diagnostician in the area of pediatric cardiology "know" that a novice physician does not, and how does the expert utilize this knowledge in the context of a specific case? The key question, given this interest in knowledge, is a methodological one: How do we get at the knowledge that an individual possesses? Fortunately, it is possible to formulate a methodology that, in several guises, has been and is being used by a large number of investigators in a wide variety of settings.

METHODOLOGY

The methodology has a natural relationship to the trends described above and can be illustrated by our research on the relationship between learning and problem-solving in adults. This research is illustrative, but not definitive, of the approaches that can be taken in this area. Our method has its roots in ethnomethodology, in research on cognitive styles, and in recent investigations of adult learning projects. The analysis is a form of content analysis of protocol data, based on verbal reports of adults accounting for their own problem solving/learning activities. Two groups of adults were selected for participation in the study. The first group consisted of 15 literate adults with a minimum of a twelfth-grade education. The second group consisted of 15 non-literate adults. The researchers utilized a semi-structured probing interview technique whereby the principal objective of the interviewer was to obtain such information as: 1) the problem definition; 2) the steps taken by the interviewee to resolve the problem; and 3) the reasons supporting the steps taken. Three interviews with each person were conducted over a period of three months. The first interview involved the identification and discussion of a problem that had recently been experienced by the interviewee, soliciting the above three broad categories of information. The second interview involved the presentation to the interviewee of two types of hypothetical problem situations. Each interviewee was asked to "think aloud" as he/she approached the hypothetical scenario. The purpose of this second encounter with the interviewee was to gather data which could be contrasted to "real problem" data, and in the interest of determining the relative utility of the two forms of data collection. The third interview involved a check on the progress toward problem solution made by the interviewee since the first interview, the collection of any data found missing in the results of the first interview, and the justification of findings regarding rule structure resulting from analysis of the first and second interviews. The intention of the three interviews, taken together, was to provide as complete an account as possible regarding each interviewee's problem solving approach and reasoning pattern. Each interview was recorded on audio tape and transcribed verbatim in the form of typed transcripts. The resulting transcripts (protocols) then served as a data base for subsequent analysis.

ANALYSIS

The data analysis consisted of two parts. The first was a method of protocol analysis which we refer to as a "reduction." A reduction is a textual analysis which takes the form of a search for thematic structures. These structures are the underlying meanings that are uncovered through a systematic manipulation of the basic analytical units of the text (intended meanings). The reduction moves through several steps of analysis, beginning with the original transcript and ending with a succinct and integrated description of the subject's problem solving process and rationale. The reduction is accomplished in five stages. In the first stage, the transcript is segmented into intended ideas, or "atoms." The atoms (sentence paraphrases) are listed individually and numbered. In the second stage, each atom is placed into one of six categories of propositional attitudes (e.g., beliefs, norm, intention), which form the data base from which we develop the third and fourth stages of the reduction. In the third stage, we examine each category of logical connections among atoms. The underlying commonalities produce themes, or generalizations over sets of atoms. The fourth stage is a preliminary representation of steps taken by the problem solver to resolve his/her problem. The major elements of the flow-chart representations are derived from the category of intentions. The fifth stage involves a "logical analysis" which results in a depiction of the interdependencies of the person's premises and conclusions. These non-linear relationships are then attached to the schematic elements to help "explain" the basis of the person's approach to problem solving. When this analysis is complete, the result is a model of the person as a problem solver, consisting of his/her problem solving process and a structured record of his/her accounting practices or rule system. The second part of the analysis involved the collection and compilation of ratings, on a variety of psychological dimensions for each transcript.

RESULTS

The first analysis revealed different patterns of problem solving among literate vs. non-literate adults. Literate adults were more likely to follow pre-planned, step-by-step approaches to solving their problems, guided by somewhat carefully selected rules from more

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well-defined rule structures. Non-literates were more stimulus-bound, concerned with the immediate environment, and followed fewer but more global rules in their attempts to resolve problems. Literate adults were more likely to look at possible solutions to problems in terms of their advantages and disadvantages and based on that information, select the most appropriate solution. Non-literates were more likely to consider solutions at a more superficial level and make their decision without considering possible ramifications. Literate adults were more likely to consider the long-range effects of their choice of a solution while non-literates exhibited a tendency to base their decision on short-term considerations. The second analysis, coupled with the first, revealed a rather stable set of factors which, at a gross level, differentiate among literate vs. non-literate populations; and at a more molecular level, differentiate among problem solvers within each population. At a general level, the literate population exhibited: 1) a higher level of perceived efficacy or control over the problem and their environment in general; 2) less egocentricism or faculty logic; 3) greater evidence of long-term, detailed planning in their problem solving process; 4) greater evidence of metaknowledge (about their problem solving process); and 5) a greater degree of flexibility in considering alternate routes to problem solution.

The methodology is also treated as a finding, insofar as it provides an important new means of accessing the knowledge base of individual problem solvers. The final results of both parts of the analysis are presently being examined for purposes of generating hypotheses for further research. It appears possible to computerize the reasoning process of individuals in ordinary situations and to develop a modeling process which would yield predictions about their future problem solving behavior. The rigorous method for analyzing self reports should advance the state of the art in problem solving/learning research, insofar as the problem solver's largely tacit knowledge base is considered important in determining the problem solving process of individuals. Educators may find the method useful as a tool for diagnosing individual learning needs.

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THE TRANSITION TO YOUNG ADULTHOOD: A DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESS

Karen Prager[1]

Abstract

The characteristics of the early adult transition are described and contrasted with those of adolescence and young adulthood. The processes of identity formation and intimacy development are examined in detail. Implications for counseling young adults are discussed.

The popular practice of lumping adolescents and young adults together as "youth" obscures the developmental differences between the two age groups (Bocknek, 1980). Young adulthood (ages 23-30) is a life stage quite distinct from the preceeding stage of adolescence (13-17). Growth from adolescence to young adulthood is marked by an identifiable transitional period (18-22) called the early adult transition (Levinson, 1978) or late adolescence (Marcia, 1976), The behavioral differences between adolescents and young adults are manifestations of changes in underlying psychological processes (Bocknek, 1980), which are initiated in the early adult transition period (Erikson, 1963).

Differences are observable in the concerns expressed by adolescents versus those expressed by young adults. These concerns emerge as a function of developmental readiness, on the one hand, e.g. a certain level of physiological maturity, and environmental characteristics, on the other, i.e. the opportunities and risks prevalent at a given time and place (Bocknek, 1980). As an individual moves from adolescence, through the early adult transition, and into young adulthood, he confronts 1) changes in cultural expectations, 2) changes in intrapsychic focus, and 3) changes in interpersonal focus. Physiological stabilization sets the stage, in the transitional period for the initial intrapsychic task of adulthood: identity formation, and the initial interpersonal task of adulthood: intimacy development (Bocknek, 1980; Erikson, 1963).

Physiologic stabilization refers to the end of puberty and the rapid physical growth of the teen years. Identity refers to an individual's self-definition, and answers the question "who am I"? The capacity for intimacy is defined as the ability to maintain a relationship characterized by depth and closeness, and to commit oneself to this relationship for an indefinite duration of time (Erikson, 1963;1968; Orlofsky, et al., 1973).

This paper will contrast adolescence, the early adult transition and young adulthood with respect to the intrapsychic and interpersonal issues confronted in each. Specifically, the processes of identity formation and intimacy development will be discussed.

ADOLESCENCE

The legacy of adolescence is one of rapid change and tunultuous growth (Bocknek, 1980). The adolescent experiences a variety of changes in her anatomical and physiological make-up. There is considerable skeletal growth--boys may grow a foot! Gonadal maturity brings its massive dose of sex hormones with their accompanying secondary sex characteristics, outpourings from oil and sweat glands, and surges of sexual/romantic desire of an intensity never before experienced. The adolescent can barely keep up with this growth and it is not surprising that attention is turned toward the self at this time.

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The cultural expectations of adolescence are often contradictory: to be independent and responsible decision-makers, yet to still adhere to parental authority. The transition to adult roles can be rather abrupt in Western society, because children and adolescents are protected from the realities of adult life. Suddenly, upon reaching adulthood, they are expected by the culture to be responsible, but the adolescent culture does not necessarily provide adequate opportunities to practice these adult responsibilities. For example, is doing well in school parallel to success in the workplace? (Bocknek, 1980). Can sexuality, an exploitation for adolescent boys and forbidden to adolescent girls, be appropriately unleashed all at once in marriage? How do boys understand that the "machismo" that is rewarded in adolescence suddenly becomes inappropriate in adult work and marital roles?

The major source of identification in adolescence shifts from the parents to the peer group. This shift in identification, or separation, is manifested as a move from conformity to peer values (Marcia, 1966; 1967). Separation is a major step towards individuation as a fully mature adult. The intensity of this need for conformity to peers suggests some anxiety is attached to the separation from parents. Separation issues in adolescents shift to individuation in the early adult transition, which results in the experience of oneself as a unique, responsible individual, able to distinguish the expectations and demands of others from one's own (Bocknek, 1980).

As adolescents mature and enter the early adult transition, they become ready to confront a different set of concerns. The rapid changes of puberty have occurred and stabilized. They have had time to become familiar with their new bodies and to become comfortable with them. Most likely, they have made a distinct break from dependency on parents, either through finishing high school, taking on a paying job, starting college, or moving to a separate residence. This "official" separation can take the burden off adolescents to create their own emotional separation, which often is manifested in the form of continuous conflict or withdrawal at home. Now attention may be focused on the self and on forming personal goals.

IDENTITY FORMATION

When individuals no longer need to direct energies toward emotional separation from family of origin and can redirect energy toward their own further individuation, the "identity crisis" of the early adult transitional period can occur (Erikson, 1963). The identity crisis, which is a period of exploring alternatives relevant to identity formation, was called a crisis by Erikson because of its immediacy and importance at this time in development. The crisis is manifested in discomfort and anxiety associated with a rejection or questions of old identifications, particularly parental values and expectations. In the identity formation process, old values and goals are questioned; alternatives heretofore unknown or ignored are seriously considered.

Erikson saw two possible outcomes to this crisis. Successful resolution resulted in a newly formed adult identity, i.e. in commitment to a set of goals, values and beliefs, which could serve as a source of continuity for the person through young adulthood. Unsuccessful resolution resulted in chronic non-commitment, indifference to values formation or goal-setting and a resultant unfocused drifting. (Erikson, 1968).

More recently, research has indicated there are more than two possible resolutions or outcomes to the identity crisis (Marcia, 1966; 1967). These outcomes can be most clearly understood when viewed as representing presence or absence of two factors: 1) crisis-- a period of actively exploring alternatives; 2) commitment-- an investment in a set of goals and values, identity relevant issues (Marcia, 1966; 1967). Identity Achievement corresponds to presence of a crisis, which has been resolved, and presence of commitment to a new adult identity, i.e. Erikson's successful identity crisis resolution. Identity Diffusion, in which the crisis has been avoided or sidestepped, and no commitments have been made, corresponds to Erikson's unsuccessful resolution. Moratorium indicates an individual actively in crisis, who vascillates from one alternative to another, who actively searches for values and goals to commit to, yet cannot make a commitment. Foreclosure corresponds to an individual who makes commitments without actively exploring alternatives. A crisis is precluded, and often commitments are made to goals and values espoused by parents which have never been truly integrated by the young adult. These four possible outcomes of the identity crisis have been called identity statuses, and represent points in a dynamic process of identity formation. (Marcia, 1976).

Reviews of more than 30 studies on identity status (Whitbourne and Weinstock,1979) show that greater differentiation and individuation result from undergoing an identity crisis period, and that stability, continuity and psychological comfort are associated with commitment. The research supports Erikson's notion that the identity crisis and its resolution are important aspects of development which are most likely to occur during the early adult transition.

Theoretically, the process of identity formation proceeds from the initial identity outcomes to a process of identity particularization which spans young adulthood (Bocknek, 1980; Whitbourne and Weinstock, 1979). According to Whitbourne and Weinstock (1979), this process involves two subprocesses: inductive differentiation, in which one uses life experiences to shape his identity, and deductive differentiation, in which one's identity shapes his view of experience. Growth demands that these two subprocesses be balanced. Too much deductive differentiation would result in a lack of feedback from the environment and a lack of self-criticism; too much inductive differentiation would result in a lack of stability, no sense of one's own boundaries and a likely lack of assertiveness.

The early adult transition is significant in that it provides a first run through the identity formation process and sets the stage for further identity particularization. Ideally, the young adult would maintain the identity Achievement status which allows the maintenance of a stable identity while still leaving the individual open to experiences which alter her view of herself. The identity particularization process appears to consist of alternating modification and stabilization of specific aspects of identity, e.s. career identity, family role identity, sex-role identity or religious identity (Whitbourne and Weinstock, 1979).

INTIMACY

The most salient interpersonal issue of the early adult transition is intimacy development (Erikson, 1963). The concept of intimacy includes mutuality of respect, caring, self-disclosure and sharing, sexual intimacy, and the maintenance of oneself as an individual within the close relationship. An individual who has the capacity for intimacy can tolerate closeness and accept the trade-offs required when making a commitment to another person. Individuals who are actively struggling with this issue, and attempting to form their first close and committed relationships are said to be involved in the "intimacy crisis". (Erikson, 1963; Orlofsky, et al, 1973).

In contrast, adolescent interpersonal concerns primarily consist of 1) bonding to the peer group to facilitate separation and 2) coping with emerging sexuality by either expressing it, or inhibiting or channeling its expression (Bocknek, 1980). During this stage, peers serve as sources of instruction, from whom the adolescent learns the skills of conversing with the opposite sex. Peers also acknowledge that it is "o.k." for the adolescent to be consumed with sexuality.

Adolescents often use their heterosexual relationships as status symbols or conveniences (Bocknek, 1980; Orlofsky, et al., 1973). For boys, the status comes from sexual conquest; for girls, it is in the form of borrowed limelight from the boys' athletic prowess or fancy cars.

The growth and physiologic stabilization of the early adult transition period allows the individual to focus less on channeling her sexual-romantic desires and place more emphasis on getting to know a person in his own right. As a person begins to form his identity, he can also afford to get closer to others without fear of engulfment (Erikson,1963).

Mutual self-disclosure progressing to more personal and private aspects of the self has been defined as the typical beginning of an intimate relationship (Altman and Taylor, 1973). This mutual self-disclosure results in depth in a relationship, a willingness to open up and be oneself with another. Commitment to a relationship refers to the intention that the relationship persevere (Orlofsky, et al., 1973). As with the identity crisis, Erikson (1963) viewed the intimacy crisis as having either a successful or an unsuccessful outcome. Research in this area, however, has indicated that this crisis also can be resolved with a variety of solutions (Hodgeson, 1979; Orlofsky, 1976; Orlofsky, et al., 1973; Prager, 1977; 1981; Tesch, 1980). These solutions, or intimacy statuses can be best understood as representing presence or absence of the two factors of depth and commitment. The intimate status refers to one who has both depth and commitment in at least one relationship. This individual would most closely reflect Erikson's notion of successful resolution. The Isolate, who has no relationships of any depth and keeps people at arms length, corresponds to Erikson's notion of an unsuccessful resolution. Individuals in Stereotyped Relationships, like the Isolates, do not have relationships characterized by depth or commitment. These individuals use heterosexual contacts for status, fun or convenience. The Preintimate person has deep, close relationships but has not made a commitment to an ongoing relationship, but has not achieved the depth of an Intimate. These five resolutions to the intimacy crisis were first identified in men (Orlofsky, et al., 1973), and have been partially validated for women (Prager, 1981). Other studies have identified two other statuses. The Constricted Intimate person is actively struggling with the issue of closeness with others. She wants closeness yet fears it at the same time (Prager, 1977). The Merger is a relationship which is close and committed, yet with an unequal power balance. One person dominates the decision-making, there is excessive dependency and lack of individuation in the pair (Tesch, 1980).

There is evidence that men cope with identity and intimacy sequentially (Orlofsky, et al.,1973; Hodgson, 1979; Tesch, 1980). Women's intimacy development may correlate with different aspects of their identity development than men's (Hodgson, 1979).

Derlega and Chaikin (1975) state that intimacy has three aspects: physical, intellectual and emotional, each of which develops in turn in order of difficulty. Emotional intimacy was thought to be most difficult to achieve. Some support for this notion has been found (Prager, 1980; Holt, 1977). Intimacy, then, like identity, may not develop unilaterally through young adulthood, but rather, different aspects may mature sooner than others, with emotional intimacy being the last aspect of intimacy to develop.

IMPLICATIONS

Counselors, educators and advisors of adult learners may be aided by a greater understanding of why an adult chooses to resume the learning process at a particular point in his development. The meaning of a college education will most likely be very different for the transitional individual, i.e. the traditional-aged college student than for the young adult who has waited until her mid-to-late twenties to enter higher education. For the transitional individual the use of the college environment as a backdrop for his individuation process seems natural and is developmentally timely. A few years of identity Diffusion or Moratorium, perhaps manifested as career indecision, exploration of alternative life-styles, mediocre grades, or a quick succession of college major changes, may be a natural part of the identity exploration process. For the young adult, already well into the twenties, the inner drive to commit to an identity is stronger. This individual may well be experiencing a drive to use college for identity particularization, i.e. to enhance a particular aspect of identity, such as career choice. If this individual finds herself in Diffusion or Moratorium at this stage, it is likely to be quite uncomfortable; she may well feel out of step.

The transitional individual, probably a woman, who is simultaneously attempting to form her identity and establish intimacy, may manifest considerable anxiety or depression as a result of stress. The counselor with an understanding of the dynamic nature of intimacy development will help the young adult realize that maintaining intimacy is a balancing act, and particularly so at this stage.

SUMMARY

The transitional individual has lived through adolescence, has achieved physiological maturity and the initial separation from parents, and is ready to confront the identity and intimacy crises of the early adult transition. Research indicates that the identity and intimacy crises may each be resolved by a number of different outcomes. These outcomes representing partial or complete solutions, are points in a dynamic process which continues into young adulthood, and can be modified by experience and maturity. Individuals who are open to new experiences while maintaining a foundation of commitments may be best equipped to face the challenges of adulthood.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MODEL PROGRAM OF COUNSELING SERVICES FOR ADULT BASIC EDUCATION STUDENTS

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Abstract

An Adult Education Special Project Grant provided the impetus for a study and assessment of current practices in the delivery of counseling services to Adult Basic Education students in Maryland, and for the design of a model program of such services to be developed over the next three years.

This paper presents the findings and recommendations of a study of counseling services in Adult Basic Education (ABE) Programs in Maryland which was sponsored by the Adult and Community Education Branch of the Maryland State Department of Education (MSDE) as part of an Adult Education Special Project Grant for 1980-81. The Project, had the following goals: (1) to gather information on counseling services provided to ABE students in Maryland; (2) to assess the need for future counseling services; and (3) to design a model program of counseling services.

To accomplish these goals the following strategies were implemented: (1) a review of previous research was conducted; (2) pertinent documents, reports and materials obtained from the MSDE were reviewed; (3) personal interviews were conducted with the coordinators of the local ABE programs and with teachers, counselors, and students; and (4) survey questionnaires were used to collect additional information.

Traditionally, counseling services have been most closely connected in our society with secondary education. Today, almost all adults in our society who attended high school have had some contact with a "guidance counselor." This well established patter goes back as far as 1907 and the establishment of the first school guidance program. (Miller, 1971) Of more recent origins, have been the extension of counseling services upward for college students (Harvey, 1974) and downward for elementary age students. (Dinkmeyer, 1973).

Less well developed, has been the establishment of counseling services for the "adult student." This euphemism has been coined to cover a truly heterogeneous population: adults with high school, college and graduate degrees returning to school for more training; retired persons and senior citizens seeking enrichment; women returning to school (at all levels of education) after years of homemakers; and finally, the adult basic education student. In assessing currenty practices in counseling adult students, it is evident that a clear distinction has not alsways been made between adults who have completed secondary and post-secondary education and the ABE student. While both groups have some needs in common, the adult with minimal skills has some very sperical needs.

The ABE student needs support in what can be a threatening and demoralizing situation. (Caldwell, 1978) To accomplish this ABE students need: to understand the mechanics of the program; to set realistic goals for themselves; to learn what resources are available to them; to deal with their fears of education, past and present; and to experience a feeling of group support for their current academic undertaking.

In reviewing a number of suggested approaches for counseling the ABE student, it became apparent that there was no simple "universal" model for ABE counseling services. In fact the array of ideas and information presented was somewhat overshelming. (Perrone, ERIC Reports #136044, Porter, 1970, ERIC Reports #177431.)

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DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Turning from the literature, the next strategy of our information gathering involved on-site visits to ABE units in Maryland to study current practices in the delivery of counseling services. Each Local Educational Agency (L.E.A.) was contacted and arrangements for on-site visits were made.

We conducted interviews about counseling services in local Maryland ABE programs with: 19 Coordinators; 44 Teachers; 13 Counselors; and 28 Students.

The structure for our interviews with coordinators was based on the topics outlined in a Counseling Information Survey Form (CISF), designed specifically for this study, and the information gathered was summarized according to the categories listed on the CISF. These included: general background information on the size and scope of the program; documentation of counseling program materials; descriptions in writing or orally of the scope of current counseling services; and projected program needs.

We found an amazing heterogenity in terms of depth and breadth of services being provided in local units. Furthermore, the quantity and quality of service seemed to bear little relationship to: (1) size of student population; (2) whether or not a "counselor" was available; (3) or the knowledgeability of personnel about counseling.

The idiosyncratic nature of each local program made it extremely difficult to draw comparisons. Despite this difficulty, we did find that in some L.E.A.s, some components of an exemplary counseling program were functioning. A major task then was to identify these components as bench marks for future program planning and for evolving some minimal standards for counseling services.

In order to expand upon the information collected by on-site visits and interviews, we next distributed surveys to students, teachers, and counselors in ABE programs.

Students were asked if they had sought help with a number of difficulties while they were in attendance at A.B.E. programs and, if so, from whom they sought assistance. They were also asked to indicate whether or not a counselor was available in their program. If no counselor was available, they were asked to indicate how interested they might be in having counseling assistance with a number of concerns. Information on age, sex and length of time in ABE classes was also collected.

The Teacher Surveys listed the same concerns as those presented in the first section of the student survey, and asked teachers to indicate how many students they assisted with each. Teachers were also asked to identify counseling related activities in which they had an interest as indicators of potential in-service areas. The third part of the survey inquired what services teachers saw counselors currently performing (when one was available to them). If no counselor was available, teachers could indicate how they might utilize the services of a counselor.

The Counselor Survey had three parts. The first part was identical to that of the teacher survey, listing the same student concerns and asking for the numbers of students assisted with those concerns. The second part asked for a specification of frequency of engaging in actual counseling functions. The third section asked counselors to make choices among an array of topics for in-service training and also requested demographic information.

The order of distribution of surveys was based on our decision to survey all counselors whom we were able to identify across the state (N=35). Further, we sampled 40% of ABE teachers across the state and attempted to sample 10 students for each teacher surveyed.

Completed surveys were received from 27 (77%) counselors; 119 (59%) teachers; and 848 (42%) students, a satisfactory return for this type of survey.

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on our findings we recommended that local ABE programs begin to build a program of counseling services during the next three years which would address the needs of students as they enter, participate in, and leave the program. These components of a model program of counseling services were identifed as: Program Entrance Services; Participation and Retention Services; and Exit Services.

In the remainder of this paper, we will give examples of some services for each component, and offer some recommendations for staffing patterns to deliver the services.

SERVICES

Program Entrance Services

First, our findings clearly indicate that local programs need to communicate to the general public, to students in their programs and to teachers about the availability of existing counseling services. Advertising in newspapers, brochures, and flyers should describe either the kinds of services offered directly by each program and/or the availability of such services via the program's referral network. Letting prospective students know that participation in the ABE program will put them in touch with an array of support services may provide an added incentive for enrolling.

Second, orientation to the ABE program should provide students with: a warm welcome to the program; a description of the program and the counseling services provided either directly or by referral; and a clear understanding of what students can anticipate as an adult learner. By this we mean that students need to be "forewarned" about possible pitfalls, discouragement and "falling by the wayside." A mechanism should be established for encouraging the "pre-exit interviews" so that students see this as an integral expectation for participation in the program. Responsibility and coordination of this program component should be delegated to one staff member or volunteer, if no counselor is available.

Students also need to have an initial assessment of their skills. With few exceptions, most programs rely on teachers to perform this service. Overall, this seems to be a generally acceptable practice, and we found no reason to alter this.

A fourth aspect of this component involves academic program planning, including self-appraisal and goal setting. The essence of this component might best be stated, "Tell it like it is." Everyone--students, teachers, counselors, coordinators--is concerned about helping students with realistic goal setting and planning. One might liken it to the task faced by the physician who must tell the accident victim that "You will get better, but you may never fully recover." No one wants to be in that position. However, it is clear that students who enter ABE programs are fighting significant odds and a "full recovery" may not be possible. We recognize that this is a sensitive area, and one in which ABE personnel clearly are asking for help.

In-service training in adult motivation, and on how to effecitvely guide students in goal setting is an expressed need for both teachers and counselors. Striking a balance between communicating the reality of the challenge students face, and encouraging possible achievements in probably *the single* most complex task for the ABE staff and needs to be addressed through comprehensive in-service programming.

Finally, we found that there is presently almost *no* use made to a support group system for ABE students. We recommend careful consideration of the implementation of such groups as a major component in the delivery of counseling services beginning at the time that students enter the program. There is clear evidence that support groups are highly relevant in aiding individuals to achieve significant behavioral changes. In programs which employ counselors, this should become a primary task for the counselor, and in other programs other staffing alternatives should be explored. For example,

- Counselors could regularly visit classes and lead group discussions.
- Informal "drop-in" discussion groups might be run in ABE centers before or after classes by counselors or trained peer or paraprofessional counselors.
- Teachers can be trained to use discussion groups during times regularly scheduled for this purpose.

Obviously these strategies represent different types of commitment to this principle requiring different levels of resource commitment.

Participation and Retention Services

This component of the counseling program would include a mechanism for monitoring student progress via records of grades, test scores and other indicators of progress. In most educational settings responsibility for this typically falls under the counseling service. However, in ABE programs, teachers seem to be doing this quite effectively, and with some in-service training in the use and interpretation of standardized instruments, could readily continue to do so.

There was a clear mandate from our survey data for the inclusion of career development and planning services as a part of the counseling program. With one or two notable exceptions, we found present practices in this area to be exceedingly haphazard. Students, teachers and counselors all gave clear indications of the need, relevance and desirability of this service for ABE programs.

By contrast, our findings led us to conclude that in-depth personal counseling should not be included in our model program. Students clearly did not seek or expect this, nor do the programs have the resources to deliver it. Instead, we recommended support of the current practice of teachers showing interest in such concerns with a view toward referring students to appropriate agencies in the community.

Finally, we recommended the continuance of the initial support groups. Research evidence continues to document the efficacy of this approach in the maintenance of significant life changes and clearly, the ABE student undergoes such a change by returning to the classroom. To-date, there are virtually no efforts to incorporate this mechanism as an integral part of ABE programs. Once these groups are established, they should be maintained for students who continue in the program. We anticipate that well-run support groups may make a critical difference in the retention of students in the program.

Exit Services

This component is designed to address two distinct groups: program dropouts and "graduates." With regard to the former, we found that most programs had adequate provisions. However, in most instances teachers were responsible for initiating follow-up, and we recommended that a "volunteer" counselor would enhance delivery of this service.

As part of the orientation process we would also recommend that students be encouraged to contact an identified resource person before they decide to leave the program. Students should be told that often people drop-out when they might be aided to continue with just a little extra effort. By making a concerted effort to encourage "pre-exit interviews," programs may see a significant improvement in student retention.

With regard to program graduates, we found no systematic follow-up efforts currently in practice. The benefits of gathering information on graduates for enhancing program evaluation, and the potential use of alumni in a variety of "peer modeling" situations seems evident. As a beginning, students who recently completed the program might be asked to return for orientation activities the following semester.

To implement this array of services we further recommended that they be provided by an array of individuals, not just a counselor. Thus we included coordinators, teachers, students (peer counselors), volunteers, and paraprofessionals as a part of the counseling program personnel.

In the instances where a counselor could be funded, we recommended that they function as program developers rather than as "individual service providers." They would be expected to develop those components of the proposed program which are lacking in their system. Thus, one counselor may devote energy to enhancing the career development component, a second the use of group support systems, and a third the development of a referral and resource network. Counselors who are not prepared to work on program should not be hired or retained by ABE units with limited resources for such personnel. A combination of inservice training and more definitive expectations of counselor functions is clearly in order to upgrade their contributions to ABE programs.

In conclusion, it is important to understand that the development of counseling services for ABE students is in its infancy in Maryland as well as in this country. The model program which has evolved from this study is only the first step in a long developmental process. Hopefully, it sheds some light on where we are, and where we may wish to go.

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THE QUESTION OF A COMPREHENSIVE POLICY OF EDUCATION FOR ADULTS

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Abstract

The question of developing a comprehensive federal policy of education for adults was raised during the period 1965-1980, but has been dropped since the election of President Reagan. This paper readdresses the question to clarify policy positions and decodify terminology used to define these positions. While calling for further consideration and study of the question, the paper advocates a programmatically comprehensive, structurally coherent (federal-state-local interdependence) approach to policy for education of adults.

In 1980 I submitted an article to Continuing Higher Education which was published in 1981 under the title "Federal Policy for Adult Education: A Review of Approaches and Positions." The original title of the article was: "The Question of a Comprehensive Policy of Education for Adults: Approaches, Positions and Recommendations." While the editorial change was a good one from the viewpoint of style, it missed something I meant to say in my more cumbersome, longer title. (Rivera, 1981)

First of all, I argue for the use of the term "education for adults," rather than Adult Education. Why? Inevitably the shorter term, Adult Education, comes out becoming longer, and we get: Adult and Continuing Education; Adult and Continuing Higher Education; Adult, Continuing and Extension Education; Adult, Continuing, Post-Secondary and Extension Education; and on and on. For some reason, we have difficulty--perhaps because of the history of Adult Education with its roots in basic and secondary education for adults--accepting the short term as inclusive. We have to stipulate its definition everytime we use it broadly.

Thus, I have come to use the term "education for adults" as we are all engaged in that no matter what institution holds our allegiance. I use it also a bit for the same reason Cyril Houle speaks of education tout court in his book The Design of Education which is essentially about program development for adults. Why? Because the issue is education first, and then come other considerations such as adulthood stage of development, specific institution or program where the systematic learning experience takes place, etc. To prove a point about development, I might point to the many adults who aren't autonomous, motivated, or ready to learn. As for institutions, isn't our partisanship evidenced in our national associations--despite the valiant move by Adult Education Association/United States of America (AEA/USA) and National Association for Public and Continuing Adult Education (NAPCAE) to consolidate, after a long divorce, but then for economic more than substantive reasons.

My position becomes clearer if we put adult learners at the center of a pie with slices respresenting varying institutions that seek to serve these learners: the military, business and industry, higher education and continuing education institutions, public schools for basic and secondary education, community postsecondary institutions, proprietory schools, non-formal programs such as cooperative extension, etc. Of course we can say that Adult Education means the whole pie, but nobody seems to accept that inclusiveness for long.

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THE QUESTION OF A COMPREHENSIVE POLICY

Having poked the (sleeping) dog of professional definition, I want now to raise the question of a comprehensive policy of education for adults. This question kicks up a hornet's nest since neither comprehensive nor policy are commonly defined terms--certainly not within the field (of education for adults). Furthermore, the term comprehensive often is associated with federal policymaking. Indeed, when speaking of the development of education for adults, international specialists tend to think of national governments as central governments, which is generally the case in Europe where so many international organizations have their headquarters and draw their staff.

The Education Committee of the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development issued a document in 1976 titled: Framework for Comprehensive Policies for Adult Education. The document maintains that the future of adult education depends on whether central governments adopt one or another approach to providing comprehensive, centrally conceived direction to adult study. Four approaches are outlined. The first approach posits no decisive public intervention with respect to adult education policy, meaning that the phenomenon develops "in a spontaneous and sporadic fashion without reference to any explicitly public intervention."

To strengthen and coordinate existing activities from the viewpoint of educational issues, but not conceive of them as active instruments of public policy in the social and economic areas, represents a second approach. In other words, public intervention would not be related to national development plans. Thus, there would be (is) national intervention but limited to education issues as they relate to adults.

The third approach put forward by the document defines those governments which seek to strengthen and coordinate the existing activities in favor of education for adults while simulataneously pursuing a positive policy of support for specific activities judged to be national priorities, for example: secondary education equivalency programs designed to promote equality. Such an approach represents national policy intervention but only for selected national goals.

The fourth approach describes national government intervention for development of comprehensive policy. This approach creates "a comprehensive service of adult education as an integral element of a broadly conceived educational system and relates its functions to the social, economic and cultural objectives of the nation." This fourth approach envisages a "lifelong educational system" linked to national development, and it is the one generally espoused by those who favor strong policy intervention for education of adults at the federal (national) level. It's the approach that the United States appeared to be moving toward during the period 1965-80, but which was reversed with the administration of President Reagan.

The four approaches suggested by the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) report pose definite problems for American professionals who work in this or around a decentralized education system, no matter that our national trend has been, until recently, toward more centralized educational interests. Indeed, we require a different nomenclature from that cited above. The question is not whether the approach is noninterventional, interventional with respect only to educational issues, interventional for selected national goals, or interventional for comprehensive policy related to national, social, economic and cultural goals. The question is decentralization versus centralization.

A very different set of policy terminology has developed in the United States. Briefly, we tend to adopt one of three stances toward education, including education for adults; they are: comprehensive, coherent, or states responsibility. Moreover, the term "comprehensive" has come to have two meanings: 1) comprehensive programmatically, i.e., no matter what the governmental structure that determines the policy--whether federal, state, or local and 2) comprehensive structurally (organizationally), i.e., a policy which integrates all, or most, educational programs for adults under the jurdisdiction or direction of one agency.

But then, there is a third sense to comprehensive used by individual committees, commissions and associations concerned with one particular, institutional aspect of education for adults, such as, for instance: continuing education (i.e. the extension services of higher education). In this sense, comprehensive policy covers all major issues within that particular area of interest.

Again, we see the need for clarification and definition of terms to help us fathom better the question of "comprehensive policy." There are, or were, many at the state level who espoused comprehensive (in the sense of broad-ranging) policy for education of adults, but they called it "coherent" rather than "comprehensive" policy to suggest that education organization and administration in the United States--federal, state and local--would be interdependent rather than hierarchical.

Another, and distinct, viewpoint, is that comprehensive policy already exists. What's at issue is federal support (and how much) to educational institutions which serve adults. Underlying this economic issue is that of "the right" of all adults to education, through entitlement or other governmental support. How much should government at any level do for adults, and which adults--all adults? If all, then how, and who's to pay!

Such decodification of termination and review of positions--all of which are political --will be helpful, I hope, in furthering discussion of issues and concerns that are only beginning to be confronted by educators committed to adults learning. I say "educators committed to adults learning" to include those concerned for self-directed, non-institutional, and non-formal educational opportunities for adults, not only teacher-oriented, institutional, formal education.

THE ROLE OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

Once the policy terminology is defined, or at least separated out for definition, the next and fundamental question is that of the role of government in education. It may be helpful to review briefly the development of the federal role in education.

Although no mention of education is made in the U.S. Constitution, the federal government has been mindful of the need to support formal schooling since its earliest beginning, exemplified in the Land Ordinance of 1785 and the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, by which part of the national domain was set aside for school purposes. Furthermore, in numerous federal statutes various types of education have been supported over the years (technical, military, agricultural, etc.) especially when considered necessary to national welfare.

While the earliest federal statutes, enacted in accordance with traditional educational practices, gave control of lands and resources to local townships, by 1804, with the Ohio Territory Act, the states accepted custodianship and took control of federal school support.

Education in the different colonies was variously conceived as a family, church, state, or charity matter. New states joining the Union, however, were required by the federal government, acting under the authority of the "general welfare clause" of the Constitution (section 8, article i) to provide for public education and that its provision be stipulated in the state's constitution.

The rest is well known--the development of the Land Grant Colleges, the Smith-Lever Act, the Smith-Hughes Act, the advancement of vocational, agricultural and adult education in general through the first quarter of the 20th. century, the impetus of World War II, the "G.I. Bill", and then...the amazing thrust of the 1960's and the fifteen-year period of increasing federal involvement in education, including education for adults. However, this recent thrust was not attended by those who felt that the state-federal contract had been abused. In the mid-1970's state governments complained of federal encroachment upon decisions traditionally reserved to them. In 1977 E.B. Nyquist, then Commissioner of Education and President of the University of the State of New York, called for reconsideration of "The State-federal contract." The capital "S" in State and lower case "f" in federal were very much intentional and expressed his general convictions. Nyquist wrote:

> "I urge Congress and the President to review the federal role in education. This is not what the framers of our Constitution envisioned. This is not a truly federal system. States should be able to work together with the federal government in making necessday changes in existing legislation and in formulating of any legislation and regulations. All parties to the contract should have ample opportunity to participate in the formulation of, and agreement to, its stipulations." (1977)

The federal government perhaps has gone too far. In 1975, indeed, the State Directors of Adult Education won back the funds which the Office of Education's Division of Adult Education had been provided to stimulate national and regional research and training. The political firewood under education for adults was clearly burning. (Rivera, 1976)

It should have come as no shock then that the tide toward greater federal involvement in education for adults would eventually be curtailed.

As is obvious from the 1980 election, many wanted it to be curtailed, and for professional not just economic or political reasons. Green and Associates argue that:

> "If the federal government supports a large-scale expansion of lifelong learning opportunities, then what is likely to emerge is something that can be described as a lifelong learning system. By this we mean a system that will contain most of the elements already present in the existing education system, including those features that the advocates of lifelong learning find most objectionable in the existing system of formal education." (1977)

Frankly, I think that such expansion will eventually be the case whether the development of education for adults comes about through federal or state policy. My position, in contrast to Green's, is that a federal system would remain more open to change than a state system. Certainly the states have not shown any particular farsightedness with regard to education. Little Rock would probably still be segregated but for federal intervention through policy and the National Guard.

To examine the question of the role of the federal government may require research and study but it also forces us into position taking. A balance of power has always been the American answer to politics and perhaps that is the best position in a situation which has led to taking sides. Perhaps those who advocate "coherent." interdependent levels of control are most reasonable. But the issue, finally, is one of values and beliefs, of political ideology as it refers to extremes between a centralized and a decentralized system and its relationship to opportunities for education of adults.

SUMMARY

This paper has sought to define and decodify terms related to education for adults and policy. It has pointed up some of the approaches and positions surrounding the question of a comprehensive policy of education for adults.

At the same time, the paper calls for further consideration of what sort of system of education for adults do we desire. Would a federally mandated system of "lifelong education" lead to problems similar to those currently threatening the system for children and youth? Is the intent, and consequence, of a comprehensive policy at the federal level that a system of lifelong learning become more formalized? Would educators of adults ultimately be seeking federal involvement in policy only to find themselves attacked by the same critics who presently call for "deschooling?" Are the critics of a federally supported large-scale expansion of lifelong learning opportunities warning us to watch out what we ask for, we just might get it--and it might not be what we want?

Thus, while posing the question of a comprehensive policy, this paper notes the divisions among those who welcome return to state's responsibility and those who continue to advocate greater federal involvement in education for adults. Many educators in the field (of education for adults) are satisfied with the present shift in power away from the federal to state government. Many are not. Those who have been riffed from federal jobs as a result of the shift, or who lament the loss of federal commitment to the "right of education" for adults through entitlement for part-time students and by way of federal loans are not so satisfied.

Despite the present shift away from a strong federal role in education, the bias of this paper is toward a programmatically comprehensive, governmentally coherent policy with significant federal involvement in favor of education for adults.

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A PROCEDURE FOR THE IDENTIFICATION OF A LEARNING EFFECTIVE AND COST EFFICIENT DISTANCE EDUCATION DELIVERY SYSTEM

K. V. Rogers[1]

Abstract

This paper describes a procedure developed for the identification of a learning effective and cost efficient distance education delivery system. The procedure provides a systematic method of analysis which can be employed by educational institutions to meet the needs of their particular situation. The paper concludes with ten recommendations which would help ensure the most learning effective and cost efficient utilization of a distance education delivery system.

Although the concept of life long learning is far from new, the number of adults participating in educational pursuits has grown substantially in recent years, a trend likely to continue for the foreseeable future. Concurrently, developments in communications technology verge on a communications revolution. Distance education is one field experiencing the impact of the burgeoning forms of educational technology. Consequently, educational institutions wishing to establish distance education courses face a bewildering array of questions to resolve. Included among them are the following: what factors should be analysed in order to establish learning effective courses; which media are feasible from the perspective of learning effectiveness; what cost considerations need to be taken into account in order that the delivery system is learning effective and cost efficient?

The purpose of this paper is to describe a procedure developed for the identification of a learning effective and cost efficient distance education delivery system. It is intended that this procedure, which was successfully applied to identify a delivery system for the School of Nursing, Lakehead University, Thunder Bay, Canada, can be adopted by educational institutions to meet the needs of their particular situation.

The method of investigation included quantitative and qualitative research methods. The literature in the areas of adult learning, distance education and educational technology formed the theoretical base for the development of the procedure. Information was also obtained by consultation both by letter and by personal contact with practitioners in the fields of distance education and communications technology. Some guidance was found on how to identify an appropriate distance education delivery system through a review of the literature. Authorities such as Börje Holmberg (1979, p. 26) and Wilbur Schramm (1977, pp. 263-273) suggest a number of considerations to take into account; however, neither provides the neophyte with a straight forward decision making process.

A systematic method for analysis was developed which is based in part on a synthesis of the considerations proposed by Holmberg, Schramm and practitioners in the field of distance education (Figure 1). The procedure indicates that the educational institution should first confirm that it has, or can acquire, the *mandate* to offer distance education courses. Once the mandate is affirmed, a *needs assessment* can be undertaken which ascertains information on the type of courses sought, the extent of the interest and the location of the prospective students. This data provides a lead into the identification of an appropriate delivery system. There are four sets of *contextual and functional factors* to take into account: location, courses, faculty and prospective students. With respect to *location factors*, the institution needs to know the geographical location of the communities; the

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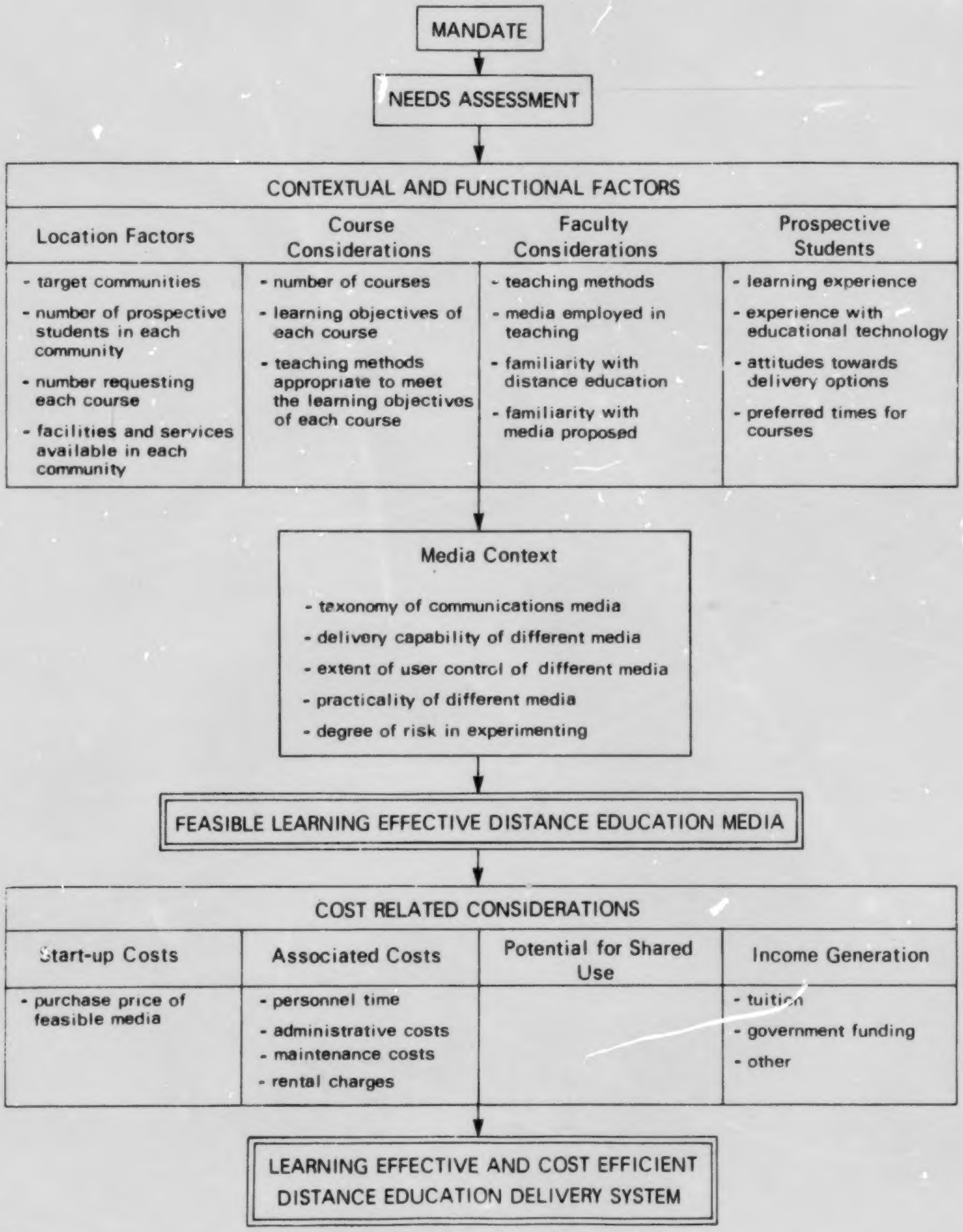
FIGURE 1 PROCEDURE FOR THE IDENTIFICATION OF A LEARNING EFFECTIVE AND COST EFFICIENT DISTANCE EDUCATION DELIVERY SYSTEM


MANDATE
NEEDS ASSESSMENT
CONTEXTUAL AND FUNCTIONAL FACTORS
Location Factors
- target communities
- number of prospective students in each community
- number requesting each course
- facilities and services available in each community
Course Considerations
- number of courses
- learning objectives of each course
- teaching methods appropriate to meet the learning objectives of each course
Faculty Considerations
- teaching methods
- media employed in teaching
- familiarity with distance education
- familiarity with media proposed
Prospective Students
- learning experience
- experience with educational technology
- attitudes towards delivery options
- preferred times for courses
Media Context
- taxonomy of communications media
- delivery capability of different media
- extent of user control of different media
- practicality of different media
- degree of risk in experimenting
FEASIBLE LEARNING EFFECTIVE DISTANCE EDUCATION MEDIA
COST RELATED CONSIDERATIONS
Start-up Costs
- purchase price of feasible media
Associated Costs
- personnel time
- administrative costs
- maintenance costs
- rental charges
Potential for Shared Use
Income Generation
- tuition
- government funding
- other
LEARNING EFFECTIVE AND COST EFFICIENT DISTANCE EDUCATION DELIVERY SYSTEM

number of potential students in each community; the number who wish to take each course, and the facilities and services available in each community. For instance, if the communities, or sets of communities are in sufficiently close proximity, it may be possible to establish regional study centres. Should the target communities not receive television, this media option would be out of the question. In this manner, the information on the location factors will influence the selection of media.

The *course considerations* include the number of courses, the learning objectives of each course and appropriate teaching methods. For example, computer assisted instruction can be employed for courses emphasizing the knowledge, comprehension, application and analysis categories of learning, while for those courses for which group discussion with the instructor is an important teaching method, teleconferencing could be considered.

Closely allied with course factors are *faculty considerations*. It is important to find out what teaching methods and which media the faculty employ in order to meet the learning objectives of the courses to be offered by distance education. For instance, if films are used, then film, video or television might be suitable. Depending upon the degree to which instructors are familiar with distance education and the media proposed, it may be advisable to introduce the system, explain how it affects the teaching-learning situation and ensure they know how to use it effectively.

The *prospective students* also need to be considered in order to establish a learning effective system. Information regarding their learning experience is one factor. For instance, several years may have elapsed since returning students last took a course, and for this reason. their study skills may have deteriorated. In that case, it would be advisable to provide study skills assistance. Another example would be students who need a few refresher lessons to bring them back to the level of competency required for the course. Their learning experience with educational technology should also be considered. For example, if they found film beneficial, this could reinforce the possibility of using that medium. In addition, the attitudes of the prospective students towards possible delivery options should be noted. If they are strongly against a particular method, or if they have had poor past experiences with it, these would need to be reconciled. A final consideration is the time of year and day the students prefer to take courses. The resulting course schedule also influences the media choice. For instance, if the students work on shifts, radio or television may not be feasible media unless the programs can be broadcast more than once.

Pertinent information regarding the locations, courses, faculty and prospective students is applied to the *media context* in order to identify feasible learning effective media. Table 1, Taxonomy of Communications Media, which conveys information about various forms of educational technology, is useful as a filtering tool. The first section indicates what the different media can communicate. Other considerations are Delivery Capability and Extent of User Control. The practicality of each medium, that is the reliability, complexity, fragility and ease of storage should also be taken into account.

By screening the information applicable to the media through this table and considering the degree of risk in experimenting with an unfamiliar medium, the media options can be pruned to those which are *feasible learning effective distance education media*. For instance, if moving pictures were important and a dearth of studio facilities and qualified technicians mitigated against using television, then film and video could be key options. When the practicality and degree of user control are considered, the advantages of video would outweigh those of film.

The *cost related considerations* are applied to the feasible learning effective distance education media in order to identify those which are economically viable. These factors include *start-up costs*, that is the purchase price of the feasible media; *associated costs* including personnel time, administrative costs, maintenance costs and rental charges; the *potential for shared use* with other institutions or agencies of the media selected and/or course material thereby spreading the costs over more users; and the *income generated*

TABLE 1

TAXONOMY OF COMMUNICATIONS MEDIA

	MEDIA																
	Printed Material	Audio Tape	Radio	Slides	Visdaviewer	Slide Tape	Film - 16 mm	Video	Television	Computer Assisted Instruction	Computer Conferencing	Teleconferencing	Teleconferencing with Overhead at Sites	Teleconferencing with Slides at Sites	Teleconferencing with Slowscan	Teleconferencing with Telewriter	Video Teleconferencing
COMMUNICATES[1]																	
Printed Word	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X
Graphs/Diagrams	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X	X
Static Pictures	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X		X
Moving Pictures							X	X	X								X
Black & White	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X	X
Colour	X			X	X	X	X	X	X				X	X	X		X
Sound		X	X			X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X
DELIVERY CAPABILITY[2]																	
Individual	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Group		X	X	X		X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	
Multiple Groups		X	X	X		X			X		X	X	X	X	X	X	
EXTENT OF USER CONTROL[3]																	
Home	X	X	X	X	X	X			X								
Control Flow (Start, Stop, Backup)	X	X		X	X			X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Decide when to Use	X	X		X	X	X	X	X		X	X						
Get Response (interaction)										X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Dependent on Others			X						X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Sources: [1] Adapted from Rudy Bretz, Taxonomy of Communication Media (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications, 1971), p. 66

[2] Adapted from Wilbur Schramm, Big Media, Little Media (Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1977), p. 84.

[3] Adapted from Wilbur Schramm, Big Media, Little Media (Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1977), p. 85.

through tuition, government funding and any other sources of support.

For example, if the cost of producing television programs was prohibitive, film and video could be employed. Similarly, if the cost of video teleconferencing was excessive, other combinations of options could be used which would fulfill the learning objectives and be cost efficient. In this manner, it is possible to identify a *learning effective and cost efficient distance education delivery system.*

Teaching is an art as well as a science. Hence, it is crucial that any educational institution establishing distance education courses not become so immersed in the technology that the human element is forgotten. With this in mind, there are several recommendations which, if followed, would help ensure the most learning effective and cost efficient utilization of a distance education system.

- Complete a needs assessment as a precondition to establishing a distance education delivery system;
- Consult with faculty in order that their experience, needs and concerns can be taken into account;
- Adopt the concept of andragogy and employ the ensuing principles of adult learning;
- Ensure that the students are made aware of the teaching methods inherent in the concept of andragogy and are familiar with the media employed;
- Provide study skills workshops or study guides for the students in situations where they are considered beneficial to the learners;
- Investigate the possibilities for shared use of course materials and the media selected in order to establish a mutually advantageious system;
- Establish a feedback mechanism for faculty and students in order that minor revisions can be made to improve the delivery system; and
- Monitor the development of emerging forms of educational technology in order that they can be employed when appropriate.

In conclusion, although the procedure does not contain explicit feedback and evaluation loops, continual evaluation is implicit in the process of application. The procedure, which is straightforward and easy to apply, provides a systematic method of analysis for the identification of a learning effective and cost efficient distance education delivery system which can be used by educational institutions to meet the needs of their particular situation.

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STUDYING SPOUSE ABUSE: A MODEL FOR RESPONSIVE RESEARCH

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Abstract

As wife beating becomes acknowledged as a pervasive crime in our society, there is a demand for researchers to develop responsive methodologies to study this social problem.

INTRODUCTION

America is a land of institutionalized violence with the American institution of the family its most violent. Raymond Parnas, a feature writer for the Chicago Tribune studied calls from police rosters in the Chicago area in 1969 and found that up to 50% of the requests for police action involved domestic violence. Most of this violence relates to women as victims. Nationwide, Gelles estimates that 1.8 million women annually are beaten by their husbands (Gelles, 1974). However, this figure is thought to be grossly underestimated because there is no routine statistical recording or reporting system for wife abuse in the United States.

Spouse abuse is a relatively new euphemism for the very old practice of wife beating. Violence against a woman "for her good" is referenced in the Bible, in legal statutes written during the Roman Empire, in church dogma in the Middle Ages, and in modern case law of twentieth century America. Some states still allow women to be considered second-class citizens in matters related to property, marriage, and other adult rights (Davidson, 1978). Case studies indicate that no socioeconomic group is immune. Wife beating is found among the wealthy, middle class and low income groups (O'Brien, 1971).

Learning to live with violence is translated into bruises, broken bones and humiliation for the women who are abused. This kind of learning is antithetical to a learning society. Adults caught in a cycle of violence are isolated, without self-esteem, and are not free to engage in healthy and productive forms of learning (Walker, 1979).

Educators can agree on the need to break this cycle which interferes with learning. However, more information about the phenomenon of spouse abuse is needed so that strategies for prevention may be developed. The major question is: how should this phenomenon be studied so that educational content and practice may impact upon the abuse problem?

This paper will discuss and compare both the positivistic and naturalistic paradigms used for studying social problems. This discussion will be followed by a description of the naturalistic process used in researching spouse abuse in Illinois.

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RESEARCH MODELS

Positivistic Design

Positivism is and has been the dominant philosophy guiding scientific investigation for 200 years. Positivism is based upon the methods of the biological sciences which conceive of knowledge as empirically affirmed assertions about reality. Relying on Cartesian principles, it separates the subjective world from objective reality. It utilizes quantitative measures, experimental design and assumes cause and effect relationships. It is deductive in its analysis and claims to be value neutral and apolitical. The purpose of positivistic study is the verification of questions asked from an existing body of knowledge. In doing so it may verify the status quo (Weiss, 1972).

Criticism of positivism has been growing. Numerous social researchers claim that positivistic philosophy and methods are not value neutral nor apolitical. Sjoberg points out that in a positivistic model, the research process is structured in advance. This structuring represents the researcher's political and ethical orientation and influences the outcome of the research (Sjoberg, 1969).

Naturalistic Design

Naturalistic research addresses some of the criticism levelled at the positivistic paradigm. The philosophy on which the naturalistic model is based is directed toward awareness of the world and its divergent and interrelated reality. The researcher does not try to manipulate the research setting as is done in the positivistic model. Naturalistic researchers study phenomena as they occur in their natural setting. It is both wholistic, inductive and qualitative in its approach. Its main objective is to understand organizing patterns and processes as they appear in everyday life. The researcher recognizes the political and ethical issues relevant to social problems and documents them as intervening variables in the study design. It respects both the subjective and objective aspects of reality, and legitimates the interrelatedness of persons within the larger social system (Patton, 1980).

The emergent quality of the naturalistic paradigm characterized the research process used in the Illinois study on spouse abuse.

RESEARCH PROCESS FOR STUDYING SPOUSE ABUSE

A statewide study of spouse abuse was sponsored by the Illinois Coalition Against Domestic Violence (ICADV) and conducted in the Coalition's 15 member crisis shelters throughout the state during 1981. The purpose of the ICADV research project was to develop a profile of the abuse situation. While the research design was qualitative, its methodology tended to be emergent and participatory; its process, naturalistic.

From its inception the ICADV research project was a group effort, decided upon by ICADV Board members. The research committee was assigned the task of directing the project. Membership in the group was fluid as some limited their participation and commitments to conform to work demands. The questionnaire developed by this changing group was designed to be administered by shelter staff to abused women who sought refuge in the Illinois shelters. Using the sociological theory of Becker (1961) the committee determined that women who had been abused and had entered the crisis shelters were good information resources on the factors surrounding the abuse situation.

During the pilot project two problems surfaced: difficulty with the questionnaire; antagonism toward research by shelter staff. The questionnaire constructed by a changing committee membership reflected an inadequately developed instrument. As a consequence the questionnaire was too long and confusing.

The second problem to surface was antagonism of the shelter staff. The antagonism expressed to ICADV Board members by shelter staff was manifested in their lack of cooperation as they returned questionnaires improperly and partially completed. Many staff members did not bother to administer the questionnaire.

Research Committee members responded to both problems. They assigned a member experienced in questionnaire construction as the principal investigator. At the same time, they questioned ICADV members and found antagonism to center around three areas: purpose of the research; data collection process; use of findings.

Purpose of the Research

Many of the 15 shelters within ICADV are collective in their organizational structure. Work is shared equally, decisions are made through consensus, authority resides in the collective as a whole and social controls are based on personal and moral appeals. The collective is participative. In assessing the antagonism, the principal investigator identified a lack of staff participation in the project. In addition, staff members distrusted the project as it appeared irrelevant to their work needs.

Responding to the lack of participation and distrust, the principal investigator invited staff members to review the new draft of the questionnaire and suggest questions and topics of interest to them. Through their participation in the redrafting of the instrument, the formerly antagonistic and distrustful staff responded with support for the research project.

Data Collection

Staff members administering the questionnaire expressed anger over the questionnaire's length and lack of clarity. In addition, they were concerned that client confidentiality would not be respected.

The principal investigator responded by shortening the questionnaire, clarifying questions, and redesigning the instrument to be self-administering for clients willing to respond. In addition, client confidentiality was maintained by an identification system that recorded only the location of the shelter. The redesign of the questionnaire reflected the principal investigator's adjustment of the methodology to accommodate the participants.

Use of Findings

Shelter staff members were concerned with how the findings would be used. Specifically, they did not want the findings used against their clients. Distrust centered around how research findings sometimes appear when publicized through the media. Responding to this concern, the Research Committee planned a series of workshops held around the state for shelter staff whose shelters had participated in the research project. Data, gathered from 147 usable questionnaires returned by clients from 15 Illinois shelters, were analyzed and the findings prepared for distribution at the workshops. Statistical findings were displayed by shelter and by state aggregate and provided to each workshop participant. The workshops offered participants explanations of findings and an opportunity to question and compare the findings from their individual shelters with their own perceptions and the perceptions of other participants. Workshop facilitator and participants developed strategies on how to disseminate the findings to local media and use the findings within their shelters and communities. Educational programs for abused women were discussed. The workshops provided the participants with an understanding of the findings and how to control their dissemination and use.

IMPLICATIONS

For the ICADV research project, an emergent and participatory design characteristic of a naturalistic process evolved out of necessity. The Research Committee was responsive to the stated needs of project participants. Through their responsiveness, the committee was able to establish its integrity and change the attitudes of those who could be served by the project. For the researcher, choosing models of research that are appropriate for the setting is essential. When wife abuse is studied through a statewide system of crisis shelters, the researcher must accommodate the alternative organization whose structure is collective and egalitarian. The ICADV experience suggests the importance of accommodation through a responsive process.

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READING IN ENGLISH: INSIGHTS FROM ADULT ESOL STUDENTS

Nancy J. Sherman[1]

Abstract

With the assumption that reading is an active psycholinguistic process, a descriptive study was conducted to explore the reading in English by ESOL adults(English to Speakers of Other Languages). This paper reports this study which sought to identify patterns of reading behavior which are common to adults, regardless of home language, who are functioning on the same English level.

INTRODUCTION

It would be difficult to substantiate the claim that literacy, or the lack of it, plays an unimportant role in the life and well-being of most adults in the United States. The studies and statistics which infer the proportions and consequences are reproachfully profuse.

Those who are in direct contact with literacy instruction are aware of the complexity of the task of learning to read. Reading has been appropriately defined by Smith (1971) as a language cognitive process, a complex interaction between the reader and print, between thought and language. Given the difficulty of the task, there is an additional factor which could render it ostensibly insuperable. This is the introduction of a text written in a foreign language for readers, one in which they do not possess native speaker/reader competencies. Yet millions of adults in this country are expected to perform this task daily.

It is estimated that over 28 million in the U.S. have non-English language backgrounds (Waggoner,1978). It would be naive to assume that the literacy demands in the areas of work, health, government, community and trade would be less exigent for them than for others. It is, therefore, surprising that research in English reading, especially by adults, is scarce.

The formulation of a psycholinguistic theory of reading, begun by Goodman(1964), has provided valuable insight into the nature of first-language reading. Its methods and principles are also applicable to second-language reading (Hudelson,1981;Goodmans, 1978).

Oral reading is investigated with the assumption that it reflects, in part, internal processes because the language of the reader is actively engaged at that time. The data generated from the reading contains 'miscues' or unexpected responses (Goodman,1964),which can be analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. They are said to provide 'a window on reading' and other processes (Goodmans, 1977).

The purpose of this paper is to report on selected aspects of a descriptive study to explore the oral reading in English of adult ESOL intermediates. The following questions were addressed: What are the patterns of reading which are common to adults, regardless of home language, who are functioning in English on an intermediate level. Does their reading resemble the reading of children, both native and non-native?

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METHOD

Subjects

Nineteen subjects were selected to participate in this study. They were adults whose mother-tongue is a language other than English. In order to be included, the readers had to take the English Language Skills Assessment (Lee,1980), a standardized test of English in a reading context. Only those who were identified as functioning on a 300 Level were chosen. This level is designated by test-makers as low-intermediate.

The readers came from four diverse language groups: Arabic, Hmong, Laotian, and Russian. These four languages were selected because they differ in linguistic classification, orthography, and, in one case, directionality. Some of the readers had learned to read in their mother-tongue as children, while others had had to acquire literacy via a second language. Each language group had 5 subjects (3 men and 2 women), except the Hmong group which had 4 (3 men and 1 woman). Each reader was given the opportunity to decline participation in the study. All but 2 readers had been taught by the researcher or knew her socially.

Text

A semantically complete passage was chosen to be read by all subjects. It was taken from the Newbury House Readers Series (1977), which is graded according to structure and lexis for adult students of English. The story was approximately 650 words long and was classified as Stage 3, instructional level for intermediate students.

At the end of the story there were students' exercises. Twenty questions (10 multiple choice and 10 true-false) were used.

Procedure

The subjects met individually with the researcher. The procedure(reading,retelling, answering questions) was explained to them. Then they were given a book and asked to read the story aloud in English with no outside assistance. Following the reading, they were asked to retell the story in their own words without the aid of the book or researcher. The researcher would try to elicit as much information as possible without supplying any. After the retelling, the readers were presented questions individually on cards. Permission was obtained to tape the entire session.

During the reading the researcher noted miscues on a copy of the text. After the session, the recording was replayed to identify and clarify all disparities between the oral reading and the written text. The miscues were noted graphically and then recorded on a worksheet for coding. A retelling score was reached by matching the readers' retelling with an outline of the story. Comprehension assessed from the retelling totaled 100 points. The multiple choice questions and true-false questions each counted 10 points.

Coding and Analysis

Each miscue was numbered, juxtaposed to the expected response and analyzed according to the major categories of the Goodman Taxonomy (Goodmans,1978). The analysis provided information about individual miscues in the following areas: correction; dialect; graphic and phonemic similarity; acceptability; syntax and semantic change; type and level of miscue; grammatical category, filler and function. All miscues were analyzed with the exception of those which were clearly a result of foreign influence ('accent'). Numbers and speaker identification in dialogue were also excluded. The total number of miscues for the analysis was 846. SPSS was used to assist in providing statistical information.

RESULTS

Comprehension

The retelling scores ranged from 12 to 52. A score below 20 would indicate a lack of understanding or recall of major characters or events. Four readers fell into this category, one from each language group. The mean retelling score was 28.47. The language group means and ranges (in parenthesis) were: Arabic 27.8 (12-46); Hmong 22.7 (14-32); Laotian 24.3 (13-37); Russian 37.8 (19-52).

The scores on the multiple choice test averaged 52.3 and ranged from 20 to 70, with the following breakdown for individual groups: Arabic 60 (40-70); Hmong 60(40-70); Laotian 44 (30-60); Russian 48 (20-70).

The mean on the true-false test was 58.9 and the scores ranged from 30 to 80. The language groups had means and ranges as follows: Arabic 64 (50-80); Hmong 52 (30-60); Laotian 58 (40-80); Russian 60 (40-80).

Miscues

As with native and non-native English readers, all subjects made miscues. The number per reading ranged from 6 to 82 with a mean of 44, or 6.7 MPHW (miscues per hundred words). The following table shows the distribution among language groups:

	MEAN	RANGE	MPHW
Arabic	49.2	43-60	7.5
Hmong	44.0	22-55	6.7
Laotian	39.2	6-80	6.0
Russian	45.6	25-82	7.0

Of the 846 miscues, over 60% were syntactically acceptable, at least within the sentence. Over 45% were fully acceptable in the passage. Miscues were semantically acceptable 32.1% of the time, while total passage acceptability was 17.9%.

As with native and non-native speakers (Goodmans, 1978), the most common miscue was word substitution, which in this study accounted for 56% of all miscues. The substitutions were almost equally divided between real words and nonsense words. Insertions and omissions accounted for 2% of total miscues each.

Almost 40% of the miscues occurred at the morphological level, with 86% involving inflectional endings. At this level 3.6% were substitutions, 39.9% were insertions, and 56.4% were omissions.

Comparison of Readers

Taking the four readers with the highest and the four with the lowest comprehension score, as measured by the retelling, it is noticed that the readers who appeared to comprehend the most tended to produce more miscues (45.25) and correct them less (11%). This is consistent with studies of ESOL children (Romantowski,Hodes). The four readers with a low comprehension score (under 20) tended to have fewer miscues (38.75) and corrected more (14.3%).

The first group, in general, did better on the other two tests (multiple choice 55 and true-false 60). The latter group averaged 45 and 50 respectively. However, it is of interest to note that one student scored 20 on the multiple choice test, yet had a retelling score of 41 and displayed an understanding of the story. Another reader scored 70 on the same test, had a retelling score of 21 and displayed major misunderstanding of the story. In comparing the reader with the fewest miscues (6) to the reader with the most (82), it was found that their retelling scores were close, 27 and 29 respectively.

Another difference between subjects who scored high on the retelling and those who scored low, is in the quality of miscues. The readers with the highest scores produced miscues which were 70% syntactically and 44% semantically acceptable. The miscues generated by low scoring readers were 67% syntactically and 36% semantically acceptable.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

A study of this nature is not free of limitations. Indeed, the researcher might well ask herself if it hadn't raised more questions than it had answered. First, the subjects were selected and their number is not large. Therefore, it would be imprudent to use the results inferentially without caution and qualification. Secondly, no assessment of the subjects' reading ability in their mother-tongue was made. This disallows a comparison of first and second language reading skills. Thirdly, while students may appear to be functioning on the same level as measured by an English test in a reading context, some subjects may possess greater oral proficiency, and, therefore, be able to retell what they have read more readily. It would be preferable to have a second retelling in the students' language. Finally, this study has added data to support the assertion that reading is complex and diverse. Since research in ESOL reading is still in preliminary stages (Clarke, 1979), further studies of different language groups and levels need to be conducted and the results synthesized.

From this study it has been seen that reading performance which is relatively error free does not necessarily mean that understanding is taking place. The opposite is also true. Nevertheless, most of us instructors feel more satisfied and comfortable hearing expected responses, and we tend to correct forms which deviate from the text. However, this study indicates that those who understood the most produced more miscues than those who understood the least. They also left more of their miscues uncorrected.

Language cannot be separated from reading. While the structure of English was preserved most of the time in the reading, meaning was often lost. This is evidenced by the number of nonsense words which readers would supply. The students which understood the most tended to have responses which were semantically acceptable, perhaps reflecting a stronger vocabulary than less proficient readers. Therefore, general language development and vocabulary and sight word expansion are a must for ESOL students.

Materials on the students' reading level can pose great challenges to readers. It appears that from one reading, some students understood at best 50%, and some very little. Accompanying questions, can themselves be misunderstood or even answered correctly without full understanding of the text, but these are not new issues in reading.

Finally, because of the individual nature of reading, it needs a setting in which it can develop and be encouraged, stimulated and guided. ESOL reading instruction must take into consideration the diversity and complexity of the task. The psycholinguistic model of reading accommodated this study of reading by ESOL adults. It provided a valuable method of in-depth analysis. Could it also be considered to provide valuable assistance in curriculum and instruction of ESOL reading?

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ENHANCING PROFESSIONALIZATION THROUGH COLLABORATION FOR CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION: A ROLE FOR THE UNIVERSITY

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Abstract

Cyril Houle has suggested that two concepts, professionalization and collaboration, can provide a new perspective on continuing education's contribution to the professions. An ongoing project provides the context for an attempt to operationalize his concepts and to suggest a role for the university in enhancing professionalization.

The concept of professionalism, which focuses on establishing a fixed set of criteria for defining a profession and spurs debates over which occupations have most completely reached the status of a profession, should be abandoned according to Dr. Cyril O. Houle in his recent book, *Continuing Learning in the Professions* (Houle, 1980). Houle argues that the professions are under seige and adherence to the static notion of professionalism may be the major obstacle to needed change. Energies should be expended on seeking ways to improve professional practice. Citing the assurance of quality in meeting the intricate, changing, and interactive requirements of modern practice as the most pressing and comprehensive problem facing the professions, Houle attempts in his book ". . . to advance the process by which greater conceptual coherence may be brought to the educational endeavors of practicing professionals . . ." (Houle, p. XI). The key to his suggestions for reform in the professions is *dynamic professionalization*, a conceptual framework for the ongoing development of professions through the use of continuing learning.

Houle's framework of professionalization consists of fourteen elements grouped into three categories or characteristics. The *conceptual* characteristic calls for members of a professionalizing vocation to be actively involved in clarifying its defining function(s) or central mission(s). *Performance* characteristics speak to issues such as mastery of a profession's knowledge base, capacity to solve problems, use of practical knowledge, and practitioner self enhancement. *Collective identity* characteristics relate to differentiating a profession from other fields of endeavor and developing a professional identity. These characteristics include credentialing, creating a professional subculture, legal reinforcement, public acceptance, relations to other vocations, relations to users of services, formal training, penalties, and ethical practice.

Houle charges every profession and aspiring profession with the task of professionalizing, with continually advancing on each of the identified characteristics. In making this challenge, Houle explicitly rejects what he calls professionalism, a static concept that assumes some end state for professions definable by absolute criteria and achievable at some point in time. Given the fact that professions do not exist in a vacuum (they are part of a larger changing society), no perfect stage of development is ever reached. Hence, professions must be dynamic. For this reason, continuing learning is critical to the professions; it can serve as a primary tool in helping them continually advance their development on each of the fourteen characteristics of professionalization.

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Houle's unique contribution does not end with professionalization. Noting that the fourteen characteristics of professionalization apply across professions, he suggests that professionalization be enhanced through interprofessional collaboration. That is, professions should try to learn from each other the ways they independently address the problems posed by professionalization. But where does the university fit into this scheme? Does it have a role to play in collaboration? Houle suggests two possibilities: collaborative exchange of information, research, and training programs between professional schools; and establishment of collaborative relationships within a university-wide framework to efficiently use continuing education resources currently available.

The important point to note is that Houle's agenda for collaboration does not directly address the possibility of collaboration between the university and the professions to promote professionalization. He speaks of intra-university collaboration and interprofessional collaboration, but does not directly consider collaboration between the university and the professions (or intraprofessional collaboration). This omission provides an opening for this paper, which suggests that the university should and can collaborate directly with the professions in enhancing professionalization.

Almost coincident with the publication of Houle's work in 1980, a five-year research and development project began at The Pennsylvania State University, intended to address the fundamental goal of professionalization, that of improving the competency of professionals. In essence, the project turned out to be a response to Houle's challenge to researchers to operationalize both professionalization and collaboration in applied and theoretical settings. This paper is concerned with examining the relationships between the project and the professionalization paradigm. It accepts Houle's invitation to researchers by (1) arguing that university/profession collaboration can promote professionalization, (2) suggesting that Houle's professionalization scheme can provide a basis for selecting professions with the best potential for collaboration with the university, and (3) reviewing how these ideas were put into practice in the project.

Continuing Professional Education Development Project and Collaboration

Sponsored jointly by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation and Penn State, the Continuing Professional Education Development Project has three major goals: (1) to establish collaborative relationships between the University and professions to strengthen the development and implementation of continuing professional education (CPE) programs; (2) to develop and implement practice oriented CPE programs for five professions through application of a seven phase needs assessment/program development process, the Practice Audit Model; (3) to develop models of university/profession collaboration for CPE which can lead to its institutionalization. Two important points need to be made about the project's goals. The first is that the project is attempting to develop collaborative relationships between the university and professional associations, and the second is that it focuses on practice or performance issues of the professions.

Good reasons exist for the university to collaborate with professions to assist in the professionalization process. Importantly, some relate to Houle's rationale for interprofessional collaboration. In particular, Houle argued that since professions have approached professionalization in different ways and are in different stages of development, they can learn from one another by being more receptive to cross-fertilization--hence, interprofessional collaboration. We, too, believe professions can learn from one another. Organizations in general have remained closed systems too long, highlighting their differences rather than their common problems. Is it possible that intraprofessional collaboration could serve a useful purpose? This certainly seems to be true of universities, representing educators, and professional associations, representing practitioners. If a profession is viewed as a system, professional associations and the appropriate elements within the university can be viewed as subsystems of the larger system. Rather then focusing on the common problems of the profession, these two subsystems have at times engaged in divisive competition that may have served the respective organizations' short term interests, but not the profession's long term interests. We believe that the university and the professional associations have much to offer each other. By sharing their differing perspectives in a collaborative framework, they may develop unique solutions to common problems that neither could have produced independently. Intraprofessional collaboration thus becomes a way for different organizations to expand their learning environment within the context of a given profession before moving to Houle's interprofessional collaboration.

The Project and Performance Aspects of Professionalization

If collaboration between the university and the professions has a valuable contribution to make to professionalization, the question still remains "what aspects of professionalization should collaboration address?" The Continuing Professional Education Project is focusing on performance characteristics. While such an orientation may appear limited to the project's purposes, it can be generalized. That is, we believe attention to performance issues is the most logical and legitimate way for universities _as institutions_ to enter the professionalization process. If it is, it can provide a way for universities to systematically approach CPE, and, in addition, be a basis for selecting professions with which to collaborate.

The Practice Audit Model being used in the project is a seven-phase needs assessment and program development process which can be used to systematically develop practice-oriented continuing education programs. Thus its use represents an attempt to impact on the professionalization process via the performance domain. Is such an emphasis the best place for the university to make its continuing education contribution to the professions? We believe it is.

Houle identifies mastery of theoretical knowledge, capacity to solve problems, and use of practical knowledge as part of the performance characteristics of his professionalization scheme. Historically, such issues have been the focus of the university's efforts as an institution in terms of preprofessional and professional education. There seems to us no reason to believe that the university's focus ought to be any different with respect to continuing education offerings. At the same time, the university's role in Houle's two other groups of professionalizing characteristics--the defining function and collective identity--seems less relevant. Establishing a profession's basic mission, developing a professional subculture, and gaining support from society to perform a particular role seem more appropriately the bailiwick of professionals and their associations. Not only are these functions less amenable to exploration through normal continuing education vehicles, but setting a profession's direction and building its support structure are the responsibilities of professionals and their associations, not the university. Certainly individual faculty members within the university may be deeply involved in these matters, but they do so as members of a profession rather than as a function of their role within the university as creators and transmitters of knowledge relevant to performance.

This does not mean that the university cannot make contributions through continuing education to the other professionalizing characteristics. Given a base in performance that speaks to the most pressing issues of practice, the university can then branch out in its influence to the defining function and collective identity areas. These two areas lie within the purview of the professional associations and their practitioners, but the university can draw attention to relevant issues in each area. While a CPE program would not be developed around the need to develop practice standards for a profession, for example, this concern could be made part of a discussion of performance related issues. Discussion in a course directed at ameliorating a practice deficiency could flow toward the need to continually assess the performance of practitioners, moving the university into the defining function area. A discussion of the need to develop a professional culture as a means of developing professional self esteem would bring the university into the collective identity area. This "trickling effect" makes it possible for the university to consider issues and problems germane to the areas of defining function and collective identity without impinging upon the prerogatives or "turf" of the professional associations. Thus, it makes it possible for the university to contribute in a systematic and advisory way to the two areas of professionalization which lie on the periphery of its influence.

The university's entry into professionalization via the performance area has an additional potential benefit. It can emphasize the importance of and provide a rationale for a systematic approach for continuing learning on the part of both professionals and professions.

From our perspective, the performance area is the place where universities can systematically enter the professionalization process. If this is the case, there is a basis for deciding which professions should be selected for collaboration. How to do this is the problem addressed next.

Operationalizing Professionalization in a Collaborative Framework

The true test of the value of the ideas discussed above is their applicability. In the context of the project, this meant that they had to be operationalized to provide a basis for selecting professions with which to work. Put another way, the issue of operationalization posed two problems: (1) how to identify professions prepared to focus their attention on performance aspects of professionalization--the university's main point of entry into professionalization, and (2) how to identify professions capable of collaboration. Our project approached these problems by creating selection criteria which explicated the two concepts and by employing those criteria in a three stage process.

The first stage of the selection process involved eliminating those professions clearly incapable of undertaking a project with Penn State. One very general criterion was developed for this purpose: Penn State had to have a relevant academic program. Numerous professions, such as law, were dropped from consideration on this basis.

The second stage was more complicated and also more pertinent to this paper. Criteria were needed to identify professions prepared to focus their activities on performance aspects of professionalization. Our approach was to develop criteria to show whether a profession (1) had identified its basic missions (what it does and should do), (2) had established a societal support system and a practitioner subculture to legitimize and propagate its mission, and (3) had taken steps to determine its members' competence.

There was a particular rationale for these criteria. For the first two sets, the rationale related to a profession's ability to focus on performance issues. Specifically, we believed that a profession must have delineated clearly its basic orientation, and have a support system to transmit and bolster that mission. Without having seriously addressed these issues, the profession would not be capable of identifying good performance nor have a common basis for understanding, accepting, and utilizing standards of good performance. The rationale for the third set of criteria was different. We were looking for professions that had not done something. In particular, the only relevant professions would be those that had not developed systematic ways to assess their members' performance.

The selection criteria and their rationale made sense in terms of the project. In retrospect, they also seemed to fit, although not exactly, with Houle's three groups of professionalizing characteristics. If there is a match, an initial step has been taken to operationalize the notion of professionalization and thereby provide a way the university can systematize its continuing education efforts for a given profession. In other words, if the professionalizing characteristics least well developed and addressed by a profession coincide with the functions most capably and legitimately performed by the university, a systematic role for the university with a given profession has been identified.

Now the specific criteria developed for the project and their relation to Houle's professionalizing characteristics can be addressed directly. Houle's first professionalizing characteristic is the profession's conceptual basis--the defining function. Our related idea was that the profession must have a well developed mission. We operationalized this notion with three criteria. The profession (1) has a generic body of practice with clearly defined specialties or roles, (2) has developed or is developing standards of practice, and (3) is stable and not divided by factionalism regarding its mission.

Collective identity was the label Houle gave to another set of his characteristics.

With respect to the project, we saw the need for an established societal support structure and professional subculture. The correspondence between Houle's collective identity characteristics and our profession selection criteria follows with Houle's characteristics in capital letters. FORMAL TRAINING: the profession is established rather than emerging as indicated by required higher education. CREDENTIALING: the profession recognizes a basic level of competence through certification. LEGAL REINFORCEMENT: individuals must obtain legal permission to practice. CREATION OF A SUBCULTURE: well developed state and national professional associations exist, representing a major segment of practitioners and maintaining a membership communication network through conferences and journals. PUBLIC ACCEPTANCE: there is a long term demand for the profession's services. Four additional collective identity characteristics identified by Houle were not operationalized for the project.

Performance characteristics were Houle's final group of professionalizing elements, including MASTERY OF THEORETICAL KNOWLEDGE, CAPACITY TO SOLVE PROBLEMS, USE OF PRACTICAL KNOWLEDGE, AND SELF-ENHANCEMENT. The project's relation to this group was negatively oriented, wanting to identify those professions which had not developed ways to define and assess members' competence on these issues. The criterion applied stipulated the lack of a systematic educational needs assessment process.

These selection criteria provided a way to identify professions prepared to focus their energies on performance aspects of professionalization. Whether those professions would be appropriate collaborators for the University was another question. Identifying professions that were good candidates for collaboration was the third stage of the selection process, requiring development of yet another set of criteria. Two factors were found useful for this purpose: (1) motivations, as indicated by an interest in performance issues and lack of resources to accomplish performance related goals, and (2) determinants, as indicated by a limited continuing education effort within the associations, a critical mass of practitioners, and extra resources to contribute to the project.

The selection criteria outlined above served to identify professions interested in the same performance characteristics of professionalization as the project, and, within this group, those professions with the most potential for collaboration. Since collaboration requires mutual selection, however, not only must a university select professions, but professions must select the university. As a result, project staff members developed additional strategies to convince those professions with the most potential for collaboration to join the project. Suffice it to say that the strategies were successful and five professional groups are now participating in the project: accounting, architecture, clinical dietetics, clinical psychology, and nursing.

Conclusion

Four points have been made in this paper: (1) Houle's notion of professionalization provides a means to conceptualize the multiple ways continuing learning can contribute to professions, (2) intraprofessional collaboration may enhance the professionalization process by providing an opportunity for different segments of a profession to learn from one another, (3) the most logical and perhaps most legitimate place for the university as an institution to make its continuing education contribution to professions is in terms of performance, and (4) the concepts of collaboration and professionalization can be operationalized through the development of selection criteria to provide a way to identify those professions the university's continuing education effort can most fruitfully aid. The potential value of the ideas is that they provide a new framework or even model for focusing the university's contribution to CPE. This paper does not represent a final statement however; the issues addressed are clearly in a developmental stage. As the project in which these ideas were developed unfolds, a more accurate assessment of their usefulness will be obtained.

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LIFELONG LEARNING IN VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATIONS: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

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Abstract

In order to establish a conceptual framework for this study, two kinds of literature were reviewed. First, a search was made to determine what had been written about voluntary associations. General questions considered in reviewing this literature included: (1) What is known about the theory of volunteerism? (2) What is known about the way voluntary organizations evolve historically? and (3) What are the socio-economic characteristics of the members of voluntary associations?

Next, studies on the lifelong learning activities of voluntary associations were examined to determine: (1) What are the reasons voluntary associations engage in lifelong learning? (2) What kinds of lifelong learning activities do voluntary organizations engage in? (3) How have these lifelong learning activities changed as the needs of society changed?

Today, as in the past, voluntary associations are heavily involved with lifelong learning. Malcolm Knowles noted that, "One of the most uniquely American aspects of our culture, and one of the most significant in the future development of adult education--the voluntary association--had already become so visible by 1831 as to draw those often-quoted remarks from French observer (de Tocqueville)." (Knowles, 1977, p. 21)

> *Americans of all ages, all conditions, and all dispositions constantly form associations. They have not only commercial and manufacturing companies, in which all take part, but associations of a thousand other kinds, religious, moral, serious, futile, general, or restricted, enormous or diminutive. The Americans make associations to give entertainments, to found seminars, to build inns, to construct churches, to diffuse books, to send missionaries to the antipodes; in this manner they found hospitals, prisons, and schools. If it is proposed to inculcate some truth or to foster some feeling by the encouragement of a great example, they form a society. Wherever at the head of some new undertaking you see the government in France, or a man of rank in England, in the United States, you will be sure to find an association.*
>
> Alexis de Tocqueville
> *Democracy in America*, I, 106

Knowles identifies the following trends and developments in voluntary associations which have special relevance to the education of adults. Studies have shown that most voluntary organizations are formed to advance a special cause--to correct a social injustice, to eliminate a disease, or to advance a special interest group (veterans, women, minorities) or of a professional or occupational group (physicians, teachers, managers). Therefore, voluntary organizations begin their educational activities by concentrating on training their members and promoting their cause through social action.

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However, as they become firmly established, the organizations broaden their continuing education focus to further develop their members and the community.

In addition, the adult education function in voluntary associations has tended to become increasingly differentiated, especially since World War II. The 1960 edition of The Handbook of Adult Education lists 15 voluntary associations which are wholly adult education organizations and 25 with continuing education administrators. Others combine their education function with other offices while some assign this function to continuing education committees.

With increasing differentiation of the continuing education function, voluntary associations have expanded their programs of leadership training for leaders of continuing education activities. A study by Max Birnbaum (Knowles, 1960) revealed that 22 out of 33 national associations conducted intensive training programs for their professional and volunteer staff in adult education techniques.

The increased differentiation of function has also enabled voluntary associations to focus their publications more directly on lifelong learning issues. These publications include journals, training manuals, study guides, information pamphlets, research reports, and the like. The total number of these publications is enormous: Rogers' study found a circulation of approximately 2 million publications by voluntary associations in Minnesota alone.

Finally, Knowles notes that voluntary associations have become increasingly active in cooperative endeavors with other agencies of adult education. This trend is particularly noticeable on the state and local level where voluntary associations and public schools and universities have collaborated in the development of materials, the planning of programs, securing speakers, and the training of leaders. Knowles believes that the impetus for the expansion of this interassociation cooperation and the upgrading of their lifelong learning programs stems from the establishment of the Council of National Organizations by the Adult Educatio Association.

While traditional volunteer associations continue to be a vital force in the United States, the greatest new growth in volunteer work had been connected with the government--The Peace Corps, Action, Head Start, The Community Action Program, and the like--which make extensive use of volunteers. However, not all of these have been viewed with enthusiasm as reported in both Commager's (1973) and Etzioni's (1970) studies.

But Kitmiller and Ottinger (1971) believe the most explosive growth in voluntary organizations has been through the endeavors of citizens to cope with social problems or to influence social policy. These groups differ from the more traditional organization in that they seek to change institutions rather than working through them, and they often tend to use "radical" methods. Examples of these new citizen-action groups are Common Cause, Ralph Nader's Public Citizen, Southern Christian Leadership Conference, and the National Organization for Women (NOW).

Although the emphasis of these volunteer associations is on social action, Richard Graham (1973) found there is an important educational function in most of them--education is both the substance of public issues and the source of the skills of citizen participation. Moreover, much of the educational involves experiential learning.

Max Birnbaum, in his study for the 1960 edition of The Handbook of Adult Education in the United States, found that most voluntary associations have educational programs which are usually organization-centered as distinguished from individual-centered curricular which characterize formal educational institutions. "The organization usually has a fairly well-defined point of view which is reflected in its educational materials. Respectable educational methods and techniques of every description are employed to inform, motivate, and persuade their target groups to think and act in accordance with this specific point of view. In many cases, an organization will take public positions in support of or in opposition to a given issue, utilizing its educational ammunition to rally support or to justify its action. Professional voluntary organizations may at times act in this fashion when the interests of the profession would appear to be at stake, while carrying on their major role of in-service education for their members and general education for the public at large" (Birnbaum, p. 380).

Furthermore, Birnbaum states that many observers believe that the educational process of voluntary associations is potentially the single most influential adult education setting in our society. This belief is grounded in the theory that the primary group exerts the most powerful educative force on the individual in our society. Voluntary organizations fulfill primary group needs for millions of adults.

Birnbaum further notes that voluntary associations are now emphasizing leadership skills and knowledge of group dynamics which "not only enrich adult education methodology but have also provided a substantial common ground of communication between voluntary organizations and the adult education profession" (Birnbaum, pp. 384-385). Finally, in addition to lifelong learning programs, many voluntary associations sponsor publications which often contain excellent educational resource material, and some organizations also sponsor research, the results of which are transmitted to the general public. Many scholars consider this their major contribution to adult education.

WOMEN'S VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

Malcolm Knowles holds that the emancipation of negro slaves in the middle of the 19th century was also the beginning of the emancipation of women and that one of the most pervasive expressions of this emancipation was the women's club movement (Knowles, 1977). Ellis and Noyes (1978) believe, however, that the women's club movement began in retaliation against the 19th century rise of the male-only secret fraternity.

Whatever the reason for their growth--grow they did indeed; from their launching by the founding of Sorosis in 1868 "to bring together women engaged in literary, artistic, scientific and philanthropic pursuits, with the view of rendering them helpful to one another, and useful to society" (ely and Chappel, 1938, p. 121) to over 400 national women's organizations in 1980.

The early clubs were primarily concerned with self-improvement and usually engaged speakers to talk about art, science, history, philosophy, and the like, followed by question and answer periods. In addition, some sponsored reading circles that met in homes and churches for "informed conversation."

However, the American Association of University Women, founded in 1881, formed study groups in "history, literature, modern languages, and Greek and Latin as well as political and social science, household sanitation, and current trends in education. Study extended beyond books. Soon branches were investigating all sorts of community problems--child labour, street trades, health conditions in schools, provisions for defective children, living conditions among working high school girls" (Tryon, 1950, p. 21).

A convention at Seneca Falls, New York marked the beginning of the women's rights movement in this country; this also marked the beginning of local, state, and national organizations of suffragists which eventually evolved into the League of Women Voters, an organization which Knowles believes has made outstanding contributions to adult education. (1977)

Also, the Women's Christian Temperance Union had increased in member strength after the Civil War. While we tend to think of WCTU's as squads of women singing hymns before saloon doors and holding prayer meetings in bars, in fact, Nevins' study (1927) shows that they devoted much energy and money to education. Although their efforts focused on the evils of drink, they developed extensive continuing education programs.

As women's voluntary associations have increased in number, so have their continuing education programs. A review of a few of the program materials for the past 10 years of just one organization, AAUW, indicates the range of the subjects studied: technology, world pluralism, society and the individual, understanding money, the modern family, alternative energy sources, China, sexism in education, and world food problems.

SUMMARY

There is a wealth of information about the social, political, and economic impact of voluntary associations but a virtual dearth of studies on how organizations educate their own members and their contributions to the education of the public at large.

Therefore, it was necessary to approach the problem from three different angles: (1) review of "how to" books such as Stenzel and Feeny's Volunteer Training and Development (1976); (2) search for articles in professional and voluntary association journals which also turned out to be "how to" set up lifelong learning programs; and (3) review of the education materials produced by a variety of voluntary associations.

This three-pronged approach led to the following conclusions: Programming for lifelong learning in voluntary associations is produced at both the national and the local level. The majority of written materials, films, study guides, and program aids are produced in the national office while program implementation takes place in local chapters.

The following categories are typical of national programs: leadership training, decision making, interpersonal relations, public affairs, economic education, and community development while local chapters may initiate programs which range from arts and crafts to civic improvement to religious education. Frequently, nationally-originated programs are implemented with modifications appropriate to the local setting.

Often, local educational activities have little relevance to the stated association goals. A common approach on the local level is to make use of one's primary membership to satisfy a variety of social and personal needs to the distress of the national staff. However, local program chairpersons tend to remain sensitive to local members' needs.

Therefore, regardless of how or why, much lifelong learning is taking place under the aegis of voluntary associations.

CONCLUSIONS

While there has been a considerable amount of investigation into the characteristics of voluntary organizations and their members, there are few studies on how organizations educate their members and their contribution to the education of the public at large. In addition, it should be noted that little research has been done into the manner in which voluntary associations carry out their lifelong learning activities. It appears, then, that an examination of the lifelong learning function of voluntary associations is needed.

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EXPLODING THE APOLITICAL MYTH: THE POLITICAL DIMENSIONS OF ADULT EDUCATION

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Abstract

What is politics? What is adult education? What are the areas of overlap between politics and adult education? This symposium focuses on identification and discussion of two basic dimensions of the politics of adult education: (1) the politics of outcome and (2) the politics of process. An effort is made to make explicit what is often, by general consent, an implicit political thread running through nearly all of adult education activities.

Can clients best be served if the adult education profession is scrupulous in its avoidance of any activity that can be interpreted as "political"?

The basic thesis of what I am about to present is that adult education and politics are two basic human activities that are very often overlapping and that politics is at least implicit in nearly everything an adult educator does. I will define both adult education and politics; provide a basic taxonomy of the political dimensions of adult education; and suggest organizational, programmatic, and ethical issues that arise when adult education is viewed through the lens of polictical awareness.

In referring to adult education, I will be using a definition developed by Cyril Houle: "Adult education is the process by which men and women (alone, in groups, or in institutional settings) seek to improve themselves or their society by increasing their skill, knowledge, or sensitiveness; or it is any process by which individuals, groups, or institutions try to help men and women try to improve in these ways" (Houle, 1972, p. 2).

Politics, where used in this symposium, will refer to the process by which resources or values are authoritatively allocated for a group or society. This is derived from, but is not identical to, a definition of politics developed by the political scientist David Easton (Easton, 1965, p. 57). This definition of politics does not delimit the political process to overtly political structures. Politics, so defined, may take place wherever a group is gathered together to make decisions on behalf of a group and where the group has the clout to make such decisions stick. This can occur in government, in industry, in institutions or associations of adult education, even in families and small groups.

Adult education is politics wherever it takes place in a setting where authoritative decision making is being accomplished and where it is an instrument of facilitating the decision making process. Politics is adult education where the effort is to facilitate learning by adults toward essentially political objectives. The distinctions, while real, are not sharp and are a source of confusion sometimes among both adult educators and politicians.

Iannaccone (1977, p. 278) identifies as a basic assumption of most educators the belief that education is essentially apolitical. At its roots, such an assumption is built on the notion that education is inherently "good" as a value whereas politics is inherently

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"bad" -- something that one avoids as an educational professional. While no study that I know of has documented the existence of the apolitical myth among adult educators, a review of adult education literature, as well as a careful monitoring of presentations and discussion about politics at adult education meetings, would suggest that the apolitical myth is alive and well among members of the profession. Even a cursory review of adult education history suggests that adult education has often been highly political both in its content and in its institutional expressions -- a fact which stands in stark contrast to the allegedly apolitical stance of many contemporary practitioners.

The most basic assumption underlying this presentation is that politics is real as a factor in the adult education realm; that politics and adult education do and should mix; and that politics, when juxtaposed with adult education, is not inherently bad. The real issue here, and the one needing closer examination, is how adult education and politics may mix without threathening the best values and functions within each of these vital activities.

THE POLITICAL DIMENSIONS OF ADULT EDUCATION

What are all of the political dimensions of adult education? There are perhaps two basic categories into which most frames for viewing adult education politics may be fitted: (1) the politics of outcomes and (2) the politics of process. But for greater precision, it is possible to break these basic categories down even further though, in doing so, it must be understood that such smaller categories are not mutually exclusive, nor are they in themselves all-inclusive of the array of windows through which the politics of adult education may be viewed.

THE POLITICS OF OUTCOMES

The politics of outcomes focuses on what happens as a result of a particular political effort. Who selects the agenda? What combinations of instrumental factors worked to bring about a particular outcome? Three types of outcomes have particular relevance in viewing the politics of adult education: (1) the politics of curriculum, (2) the politics of policy, and (3) the politics of finance.

The Politics of Curriculum

Who decides what is to be taught? This is the core question related to the politics of curriculum. Curriculum development folklore may suggest that the adult educator, working with clients or prospective clients, may determine the curriculum content. But curriculum decisions in a broader context may not always be completely in the hands of the individuals or groups most directly concerned. The state legislature may be involved -- at least at the outset -- as it decides what adult education programs it will authorize or fund in institutions under its jurisdiction. Boards of regents or trustees have a similar curriculum decision making role. Pressure groups interested in particular types of adult education will also make their infulence felt. These representative of, or petitioners to, the political sector are keenly interested in what is to be taught -- especially when they or their consituents are putting up the money for it.

Paulo Freire, the exiled Brazilian adult educator, drew the curriculum content for his literacy programs with Brazilian peasants from "generative words" having highly charged political valency. The Brazilian military government was quick to recognize the revolutionary overtones in this curriculum. Marxist governments, too, are curriculum conscious and are often more straightforward than their democratic counterparts in acknowledging their political influence over the curriculum content in adult education activities.

The Politics of Policy

A second type of outcome politics is the politics of policy. A policy is a law, a regulation, or an authoritative decision developed or enacted by an individual or group having responsibility for activity within a particular sphere. At the federal, state, and local levels, governmental entities develop policies that govern what government subsidized or regulated adult education is to be and how it will be delivered. The Department of Defense, for example, determines which programs of education are suitable for the enrollment of members of the armed forces. A state may specify that a particular program of continuing education will be compulsary for licensed members of a certain profession. Policy development and redevelopment is continuous; the process never stops.

The Politics of Finance

A third political outcome affecting adult education is that of finance -- an appropriation or authorization to underwrite a particular type of adult education activity. The Cooperative Extension Service, for example, functions under appropriations not only from the federal govenerment's Department of Agriculture, but also from appropriations at the state and county level. State governments will finance one type of adult education activity and not others. In California, for example, the California Community Colleges have recently lost state subsidization for their offering of "recreational" or "hobby" courses that appeal primarily to adult and part-time students (McCurdy, 1981, p. 11).

In a wry comment on the apolitical myth as it affects educators and the financing of education, Stephen Bailey remarks that there are those who believe "that the stork brings the educational finance baby." (Leadership for Education, 1966, p. 23) In reality, it is a highly political struggle that is waged in determining how much money any program or institution of adult education is to acquire.

THE POLITICS OF PROCESS

A second major way of viewing adult education politics is via the politics of process. Rather than focusing on outcome, this type of study will concentrate on who does or does not participate in decision making about the development, sponsorship, and financing of adult education programs. Under what terms may certain individuals and groups participate? At what point in the decision making process? Through what mechanisms of decision making (e.g., formal political structures, informal power cliques, veto power, organization or persuade decision makers on behalf of some interest or group of interests, is important here.

With his systems theory, David Easton has provided a frame through which the politics of process may be studied (Easton, 1965). Using Eastonian concepts, it is possible to identify individuals and groups making demands for particular outcomes within a system of political activity. Also identifiable are groups giving signals indicating that they may reward or punish decision makers, depending upon what their behavior is in a political decision making setting. Environmental factors influencing decision making, too, may be identified using systems theory.

Applying systems theory to policy development processes in adult education, two subcategories of political activity are especially interesting to anyone examining the politics of adult education. These are (1) inter-group politics and (2) intra-group politics, both of which define political contests within the policymaking process.

Inter-Group Politics

In the struggles to achieve particular outcomes, various interest groups jockey for advantageous positions. The field of adult education is fairly bursting with such interest groups which are frequently, though not always, formally organized as associations. Mainline groups in this category include the National University Continuing Education Association (NUCEA), the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE), and the American Assocation for Training and Development (ASTD). There are, in addition, dozens of associations that have adult education as a major, though not primary, concern. Institutions and agencies of adult education, too, may function as interest groups on occasion. The purpose of these interest groups is to articulate the interest of the group members and to make demands on political decision makers. The success of such groups will be determined not only by their power of persuasion but by their mobilization of strength and by their degree of knowledge about, and access to, the decision making machinery.

Intra-Group Politics

How does adult education fare within the institution or agency that is its sponsor? Until very recently, adult education was demonstrably peripheral as an activity within most institutions of higher education, and there is a whole literature exposing the "marginality" of adult education. More recently, adult education has moved away from marginality as changing population demographics force institutions to seek adult clients in the face of enrollment decline among 18-25 year olds. To study internal politics, it is necessary to review policy outcomes within the institution and to study also the organizational patterns within the institution. Where does ultimate responsibility for adult education in most institutions that sponsor adult education programming are now ongoing in most institutions that sponsor adult education and these struggles are mirrored within association that include adult educators. The winners in these contests will be the individuals and groups who possess the best political weapons and political skills.

ISSUES

Assuming the salience of an apolitical myth within many or most institutions and agencies of adult education, what organizational, programmatic, or ethical issues are raised by an effort to identify such a myth and to do away with it? The following questions are raised, given a basic assumption that the political dimensions of adult education are real; that politics is a respectable activity within a democratic society; and that politics should be comfortably explicit, rather than nervously implicit (or even unrecognized) within an adult education enterprise:

1. What are the hazards of too little political involvement by adult educators? Of too much involvement?

2. In developing major adult education progrmming, should adult educators routinely prepare "political impact statements" attending such programming?

3. What activities directed toward identifying relevant decision making structures bearing on adult education programming should be initiated?

4. What means should be used for monitoring political activity that bears on adult education programming?

5. To what extent should clients of adult education programs be recruited as political agents on behalf of such programs?

6. What forms of lobbying, as defined by relevant state and federal laws, should be attempted by adult education institutions?

7. Should responsibility for lobbying and related activities be vested in one person in an institution or agency of adult education?

8. What are the ground rules under which adult education institutions should be receptive to influence from the political sector? (What are the academic freedom concerns?)

9. Should adult educators run for political office or otherwise engage in partisan political activity? If so, how would this affect their professional roles?

10. If a group of adult education clients finds a political barrier in the way of its effort to self-actualize or realize educational goals, should an adult educator intervene or otherwise assist them in the removal of such a barrier?

11. What would constitute an abuse of political power in an adult education context by a political entity? What would constitute an abuse of political power by an adult education association, agency, or institution?

12. Is lobbying a form of adult education?

13. Should an institution of adult education sponsor "political education" programs for its staff and employees?

There may be no "right" answers to any of these questions. But discussion of them in depth may be a good way to start if adult educators are to get rid of the apolitical myth and begin to deal realistically with all of the world in which they work.

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PROVIDING LEARNING ASSISTANCE SERVICES TO THE COMMUNITY: ESTABLISHING AND ADMINISTERING SATELLITE LEARNING CENTERS

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ABSTRACT

With economic realities often resulting in budget cuts, this presentation will focus on interagency cooperative efforts which result in the establishment of satellite learning centers. Since there is little in the literature addressing this topic, this will be a practical, experienced-base presentation. The satellite LC concept will be discussed along with the presenter's experiences in establishing and administering satellite centers in public libraries, hospitals, churches, industries, and prisons.

BACKGROUND

Forsyth Technical Institute (FTI) is one of 58 public two-year colleges in North Carolina. It was established in 1960. The annual total full-time equivalent (FTF) for 1980-1981 was 4545. The primary target population consists of the adults from a service area of 277,000.

The Individualized Learning Center at FTI is both instructional and institutional support. The learning center has been organizationally placed under the Executive Vice President for Instructional Affairs and will be eventually under the Vice President for Planning and Development.

FTI's learning center is a place of individualized instruction for adults preparing to take the Tests for General Educational Development (GED); taking or supplementing FTI curricular courses; taking adult high school credit courses; taking enrichment courses; preparing to take any of a variety of entrance tests such as FTI's admissions test, the Tests for Comparative Guidance Placement; or needing a tutor. The number of students served by the learning centers in 1980-1981 was 4254 for a total number of 46,220 contact hours. State funds support the program.

THE SATELLITE LEARNING CENTER CONCEPT

Peterson (1975) states that the learning center "... is concerned with learning as a process and a product" (p. 23) and it "... provides a variety of individualized and individual experiences for patrons through independent study, media resources, tutorial activity, etc." (p. 22).

At a University of Nebraska conference on "Building Family Strengths," renowned psychologist Dr. Bruno Bettelheim (in Krucoff, 1981) stated that "the most important thing to learn in life is how to stretch according to the covers." Dr. Bettelheim referred to his grandmother's philosophy: "When she was small, all the children slept in one bed - so they learned about give and take. If you grabbed too much of the cover, you got a kick and couldn't sleep."

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Dr. Bettelheim was referring to human growth and development, but his statement can also apply to organizations, especially educational institutions that are now having to face issues such as "how to do more with less," - dealing with turned-on publics but having turned-down support-bases. Some schools are even developing retrenchment policies for dealing with possible decline in support and subsequently, enrollments.

Dr. Bettelheim's example applies to an organization such as a learning center in that many institutions still have just one quilt - one "piece of cover" to meet the needs of a growing public.

In a study done by Martin et al, (1977), the authors stated that underlying the learning center concept is a sense of urgency and quality education for all. They say that urgency is also inherent in the struggle for survival of many private colleges, divisions of specific studies, etc. which depend on the numbers of students which can be attracted and maintained.

One definition of satellite is that it is a small state that is economically dependent on, and hence adjusts its policies to, a larger, more powerful state. In the learning center context a satellite is a learning center located elsewhere in the community but dependent on the main campus learning for its identity and policies.

According to Martin et al, there are two categories of centers: (1) drop-in and (2) out-reach. The satellite concept is a third category. While it is program-based, it is not located on various areas of the campus. Instead it is located in various areas of the community. The out-reach learning center is a program-based center with programs designed for specific populations and conducted in various locations on the campus.

Thad Sitton (1980) , in a reference to the Fox-Fire phenomenon, said that "the conventional school curriculum has largely ignored the local community." Again, while this reference is not totally applicable to two-year colleges it serves as a reminder that the community should be considered in service-planning. Foxfire went to the community and brought information back to the classroom; satellite learning centers take the classroom to the community.

Martin et al stress the fact that in our society the concern for all has become literal as indicated by the multi-ethnic socioeconomic and academic backgrounds expected to secure grants from funding agencies.

FTI's concept of satellite learning centers subsumes the concept of inter-agency cooperation. Through interagency cooperation essentially all that is needed is a place with a group of people who need the services provided.

Economic realities have encouraged interagency cooperative programming. The establishment of satellite learning centers does allow a service agency such as FTI to extend its service areas without having to erect new facilities.

RATIONALE FOR SATELLITE LEARNING CENTERS

One must consider what services are offered by the sponsoring agency and then identify who needs the services. After the who and what have been assessed, one must determine where the people are who need the services provided. In other words, determine where the market is - who is not being served.

At FTI, we determined that our service was primarily for high school dropouts and secondarily for life-long learners. High school dropouts and life-long learners are found in public libraries, industries, churches, hospitals, and prisons and almost all of these places have training rooms, fellowship halls, or some unused space which could become a learning center.

As with Hemmingway's A Moveable Feast, there are several reasons for taking the service to the users or clients:

1. Convenience
2. Economics
3. Comfort
4. Institutional public relations

Convenience. In less-than urban areas, transportation to any public place can be a problem. The closer the service is to the user, the more convenient and more likely that the user will take advantage of the service. At some of FTI's satellite learning centers there are people who are now high school graduates because we went to them. They may have never ventured from their communities to go 10 to 20 miles to a learning center for the services provided. With industrial settings, the clients can build into their daily work schedules, the time in the learning center. In public libraries, lunch hours can be spent reviewing materials or learning a foreign language, and in hospitals and prisons, the captive audience can take advantage of new educational opportunities.

Economics. The economic advantages are experienced by the sponsoring agencies and the client population. For the clients, the money saved in gasoline is a significant factor in determining the amount of time they can schedule in the learning center.

For the sponsoring agencies the initial and total monetary investment is a positive factor. The services are provided in facilities that are already heated, cooled, lighted, and well established; there is no new construction costs involved. In all of FTI's arrangement, there are no rental fees to be paid. The learning center provides the personnel and the materials; no formal contracts or agreements are signed.

Personnel who coordinate the learning activities in the satellite learning center are generally part-time employees who are hired for specific times and for specific locations. For instance, it is especially important to have the right person to work with the quadraplegics and paraplegics at the hospital learning center.

Student Comfort. Because of some bad educational experience, many adult learners do not want to return to a traditional school setting. The desk and a classroom trigger the memory of a bad experience. The neutrality of the non-traditional setting of the satellite learning centers makes the learning experience more comfortable for the students. Many of the adult learners in our area are strong Bible readers. It is to our advantage to realize this. The church fellowship hall is therefore a comfortable spot for these learners to receive further education.

Some of the enrichment students are quite comfortable in the public library setting. Professional people particularly are comfortable in that setting where the business executives read stock reports and other life-long learners study foreign languages.

Institutional Public Relations. As a result of going to the people, particularly in the outlying service areas, Forsyth Technical Institute has a more visible profile. The services sponsored by the learning center are certainly at the grassroots level. Approximately two-thirds of the GED graduates become vocational or technical students in FTI's curricular programs.

NECESSARY FACTORS

The satellite learning center concept is good and its strength lies in several factors: the philosophical commitment of the sponsoring institution's administration; the ability to sell the concept and the program; employment of appropriate personnel; and the ability to be flexible.

Philosophical commitment. The administration of the sponsoring and cooperative institution or organization must be philosophically committed to the satellite learning concept. There are risks involved such as possibly having low student-coordinator ratios. The administration must be willing to support the program from concept to reality. The cooperative institution must see the service as an extension of its mission. With the public library, the learning center service is an expansion of the library's adult education role; with the church, the service is a social ministry; with industry and prisons, the service is a personnel development; and with the hospital, the service is an intellectual and social stimulant.

Ability to sell the concept and the program. Enthusiasm is essential in most successful selling experiences. The concept must be sold to the cooperative agency and the program must be sold to the potential clients. The sponsoring institution must convince the cooperative agency that the program will benefit the agency's publics. Industry must see that the program will in fact not cause any employment problems; the church must see the program harmonious with its community mission. The public library must see its involvement as an extension of its intended purpose. The sanction of the governming board of each cooperative agency is imperative.

Once the concept is bought, selling the program to the clients continues. In fact, this is an on-going process called public relations.

Employment of appropriate personnel. The services delivered by the program are as good as the personnel. As discussed earlier, it is important to match the appropriate personnel with the proper learning center. Personnel have to be independent enough to function well in a satellite setting, but they need to be dependent enough to communicate needs to the main campus learning center. It is important to have frequent staff meetings so that the satellite personnel feel and are perceived as a part of the learning center staff.

Flexibility. In the satellite concept, the need to be flexible is important. Schedules have to be changed and different materials used. Patience with these changes is essential. The program does not always run as smoothly as the campus center because of the temporary nature of some of the satellite centers and because of limitations with the equipment and facilities.

FTI SATELLITE LEARNING CENTERS

At FTI the learning centers are located in two public libraries, a church youth house, and in the training room of a rehabilitation hospital. They have been located in a minimum security prison reading room and the training room of a major industry.

One of the library learning centers is located 15 miles from campus in a corner of the main level of a branch library. The center is open 12 hours a week including day and evening hours.

The other library learning center is located three miles from campus in a beautiful new $2,000,000 addition of the downtown main public library. It is open 39 hours per week including day and evening hours.

The church youth house learning center is approximately 20 miles from campus in an adjoining county. This is an area previously unserved by the learning center. The center is only open for six evening hours. Approximately 75 have graduated from this center in less than a year.

The rehabilitation hospital learning center serves a very special small population. The afternoon hours of this location are planned at a time to suit the therapy schedules of the patients. Several of these students have received their GED's.

The prison and industry learning centers are examples of identifying short-term populations, serving that group, and moving on to other emphases. In the industrial setting, approximately 100 employees received their GED's in less than a year. When the employees ceased to attend the learning center, it was assumed that the need for the service was no longer valid.

IMPLICATIONS

1. Inter-agency cooperative programming through satellite learning centers is an effective strategy for serving more people at more convenient locations for less money.

2. Satellite learning centers can improve institutional public relations in outlying service areas.

3. Services provided through satellite learning centers can encourage enrollment in other institutional programs thereby serving as an effective recruitment strategy.

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KEY CONCEPTS AND SKILLS: A CONTENT GUIDE IN THE PREPARATION OF OVERSEAS TECHNICIANS

Thomas F. Trail[1]

Abstract

The purpose of this investigation was to determine the curriculum divisions and subject matter areas basic to the preparation of overseas technicians. A survey of 150 training program syllabi, training literature, and interviews with authorities in the field of technical cooperation were utilized to determine the basic curriculum areas. A questionnaire was constructed and administered to 100 authorities in the field of technical cooperation to gather data respecting curriculum priorities.

This investigation was based on the belief that there were certain important curriculum areas in training programs from which key understandings and skills could be developed which would more adequately prepare U.S. technicians to perform effectively overseas. Six questions then appeared to be pertinent to the study. These were: (1) What is the nature of technical cooperation work? (2) What are the types and status of technical cooperation training programs? (3) What are the curriculum areas considered important in the preparation of overseas technicians? (4) What are the key understandings and skills deemed basic in the preparation of overseas technicians? (5) What are the basic curriculum areas encompassed in current training programs? (6) What training priorities should be assigned to basic curriculum areas in the training of technicians?

MAJOR RESEARCH FINDINGS

The nature of technical cooperation work was determined through a review of literature. The survey revealed that the basic principle underlying technical cooperation is the systematic sharing of technical and scientific knowledge and skills among people of different countries (Trail et. al., 1981). There are two primary tasks involved in technical cooperation work. These are to assist host countries in initiating or accelerating economic and social development. All technical cooperation agencies have the long-range objectives of assisting people of other countries improve agricultural production, increase educational and health opportunities, and raising standards of living.

The types and status of U.S. technical cooperation training programs were investigated. A survey of 150 training program syllabi and interviews with training specialists revealed that the five major types of training programs were government, business, religious, voluntary and university. All programs could be classified as one of the five major types.

The examination of the literature of training programs revealed that technical cooperation training programs have been characterized by a number of major problems in past years. One of the problems has been the limited training curriculum of U.S. training agencies. The survey indicated that many of the traditional areas of the training curriculum are being questioned by training officials as to their usefulness in the preparation of technicians. It was clearly indicated that the areas of the training curriculum need to be more clearly defined, changed and re-evaluated in light of more fully meeting the needs of the technician and agencies involved in overseas work. Training directors emphasized the major problem facing training program directors is the development of program curricula which will more effectively prepare technicians for overseas work.

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The inadequate development of curricula for training technicians clearly indicated that a planned and integrated approach to the design and development of training program curricula was of the greatest importance, and that a planned and integrated approach to successfully guide technicians in developing key understandings and skills would contribute to increased overseas effectiveness.

The barriers to improved training programs as revealed in training literature are considerable. Pressures to develop "quick-result" programs have resulted in questionable preparation of many technicians. Scarce training materials, insufficient training staffs, and the great diversity of backgrounds of the trainees emphasize the need for comprehensive planning to make the most effective use of the resources available.

The major curriculum divisions and subject matter areas basic to technician preparation were determined by means of a review of training syllabi, training reports and interviews with training authorities. All those dealing with the training of technicians were unanimous in agreement that the following subject matter areas are essential to technician preparation.

MAJOR CURRICULUM DIVISIONS AND SUBJECT MATTER AREAS ESSENTIAL TO THE PREPARATION OF OVERSEAS TECHNICIANS

Figure 1

I. Technical and Professional Considerations

1. Objectives and Philosophy of the Agency
2. Administrative Considerations
3. Resources of the Agency
4. Development of Technical Skills

II. Cross-Cultural Understandings

1. Cultural Adjustment
2. Language Skills
3. Resources of the Agency
4. History and Culture of the U.S.
5. History and Culture of the Host Country
6. World Ideologies
7. Inter-Cultural Relations

III. Developmental Processes

1. Technician-Counterpart Relations
2. Institution Building
3. Program Development
4. Technological Change
5. Economic Development

Specific examples of the types of understandings and skills which could be developed from each curriculum area are outlined in the book, *Education for Development Technicians* (Trail, 1969).

The curriculum offerings of U.S. training programs were determined through a survey of the training program syllabi of the five major types of U.S. training agencies. The survey served to check the extent to which training programs covered basic curriculum areas in technician orientation. Only a few of the programs treated all of the basic curriculum areas in technician training. The evidence from the examination of major training agency syllabi clearly indicated that the voluntary, religious, government, and business training programs are especially deficient in their treatment of the basic curriculum areas. In order to upgrade training curricula, the basic curriculum areas essential to technician preparation must be integrated into the training programs of the majority of U.S. agencies. The revision of current training curricula was revealed as a great need in today's preparation of technicians.

One hundred authorities in the field of technical cooperation participated in this study to determine the training priorities which should be assigned curriculum areas in U.S. programs preparing overseas technicians. These authorities represented government, business, voluntary, religious, and university agencies.

The training priorities accorded curriculum areas within the three major curriculum divisions by technical cooperation authorities were: (1) technical and professional considerations, (2) cross-cultural understandings, and (3) developmental processes. From the curriculum areas of these three divisions, key understandings and skills can be developed to prepare overseas technicians to do a more effective job.

The areas of agency objectives and philosophy, administrative considerations, and agency resources were considered by the respondents as the areas which should receive the top training priorities in developmental processes division. Over 80 percent of the authorities indicated that the cross-cultural areas of cultural adjustment, language skills, and inter-cultural relations should be allotted high training priorities in the cross-cultural division. The developmental processes areas considered of the greatest importance were institution building, technological changes and technician-counterpart relations.

The development of effective technician-counterpart relations has been reported by the majority of training authorities to be essential in the successful execution of overseas assistance programs. The majority of overseas technical assistance programs involve relationships with national counterparts. It is evident that a mutual sharing of technical skills, knowledge, and information between the counterpart and technician are basic to the successful implementation of any technical cooperation program.

Training in technician-counterpart relations must also stress the development of understandings of the elements which shape this role. These factors are: (1) definition of his task by the agency employing him, (2) the requirements of the task to be fulfilled, and (3) the receptivity in the host country where he is to work. When related in a mutually consistent manner, these elements provide for a clarity of decision as to what the technician should do--when, where and how. But if these elements are inconsistent or in conflict with another, the technician will at best experience frustration and at worst he will experience failure (Trail and Griffin, 1981).

An important responsibility of the technician abroad is that of institution building. In whatever field a technical consultant is working, his principal task is to help build a viable institution which will carry out the function with which he is concerned. The ultimate test of institution building is after the technician leaves the host country--what is left behind. Will the work of the technician be regarded only as a memory or an institutional legacy? One of the primary conditions for successful institution building is that the local people must cultivate some sense of identification with the new institution and take over its leadership. New host country institutions must be built from within. Ideas must be planted from within and by indirection. Institutional growth is usually sporadic and the end product will probably appear in a somewhat altered form from the original concept of the agency and the technician.

Training authorities reported that technicians need to develop understandings and skills in the area of program development. Program development is an intensive and broad effort on the part of the action agency to assist the people of an area in their attempts, collectively, to analyze their major problems and to build an educational program directed toward the improvement of agriculture, family and community living. Program development is an educational process and an attempt to do a thorough and systematic job of long-range programming with people.

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Training authorities report overseas workers should become knowledgeable in the area of technological change. Technical assistance programs have long recognized the significance of introducing change into a developing country. Emphasis in training has been concerned with the idea that technological development programs represent planned cultural change. Technicians should develop the prerequisite understandings of the principles of introducing change as proposed by anthropologists and skill in their application (Trail et. al., 1981).

Authorities agree that technicians should have a general understanding of economic development. Technicians need to understand the processes of economic growth so that they may better visualize their roles in the total complex of development. The study of economic development involves the application of economic principles developed in the West on the basis of societies permeated by a money economy and which are largely individualistic and industrialized, to countries whose economy, culture, attitudes, and institutions are significantly different from those with which the West are familiar.

CONCLUSIONS

From the summary findings the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Most U.S. technical cooperation training programs have not adequately prepared technicians for overseas service. The inadequate attention given in training programs to certain basic curriculum areas such as cross-cultural and developmental processes has limited the effectiveness in the preparation of overseas technicians.

2. In the basic curriculum areas the lack of provision for the development of specific key understandings and skills for technician preparation is characteristic of most current training efforts. Until training programs stress the understandings and skills known to contribute to technician effectiveness, U.S. training programs will continue to inadequately train their overseas representatives.

3. A planned and integrated approach to the design and development of training program curricula is paramount if training program directors are to successfully guide technicians in learning the key understandings and skills contributing to overseas effectiveness. Thus an organized drive for improved curriculum offerings is a great necessity in the preparation of today's overseas technicians.

CHALLENGES FOR THE FUTURE

On the basis of the findings and conclusions, the following challenges are outlined for those interested in the initiation, design, planning, and development of training programs for overseas technicians.

1. The proposed curriculum outline developed in this study includes divisions, subject matter areas and key understandings and skills which can serve as a guide in assisting training program directors interested in designing training programs.

2. Business, voluntary, religious, government, and university training programs should concentrate agency resources in the incorporation of basic curriculum areas in their programs. Special consideration and emphasis should be given to those curriculum areas which training specialists have given high training priorities.

3. The financial and staff limitations of religious and voluntary agencies restrict the development of training programs which might encompass major curriculum areas. Efforts should be directed toward developing cooperative training programs with similar agencies or with universities engaged in this type of training.

4. Further research in the area of key understandings and skills contributing to the success of the overseas technician needs to be conducted. A number of understandings and skills are known to contribute to overseas effectiveness; however, the relationships of many understandings and skills remain unclear and ill-defined.

5. There is a need for comprehensive planning to make the most effective use of resources. This includes the need for a long-range program for the preparation of training materials, the development of skilled training staffs and the development of training techniques which are shaped to the needs of the individual agency.

6. Training should be viewed as a continuous process. A comprehensive training plan should be developed for predeparture, in-country and post-departure training. This would include an appraisal of time needed for training and plans in the range of desirable alternatives of the weeks of training needed by different personnel.

The answers to these aforementioned challenges will assist designers of future training programs. Much remains to be done to assist overseas representatives of technical cooperation agencies gain the prerequisite understandings and skills for effective overseas performance. When this is accomplished, the concept of technical cooperation as the "greatest idea" to emerge in this century may be fulfilled.

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LIFESPAN ISSUES IN WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT:
A PERSPECTIVE FOR ADULT EDUCATION

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Abstract

This paper proposes a model of women's career development around three decision points of choice, implementation, and continuity. Issues confronted by women at these decision points are presented to encourage needs assessment for enhanced program precision in education and counseling services for women.

INTRODUCTION

Adult Education has been laudably serving the general occupational needs of women through its diverse systems. However, the realities of women's lives and the occupational world are increasingly complex. Multidimensional program responses are required. This paper proposes a perspective for understanding three stages in women's career development and the issues in each influencing their occupational involvement.

The concept of women's occupational development has generated a steady stream of literature which recently has become a flood. Several major themes are evident throughout this literature and are summarized below as a foundation for this effort.

- Most women work for the survival of themselves and their families. In the United States, the majority of women who comprise 43 percent of the labor market are working out of economic necessity.

- Women's work throughout history has contributed to the well-being of the larger social order although this work is generally discounted or accorded a lesser status than that of males.

- The remuneration women have received for their work is and has been roughly 2/3 of that which men receive for their labors.

- The findings of developmental psychology indicate that women in developed countries become more career- and social-oriented at midlife.

- Women in developed countries are becoming increasingly socialized to evolve adult lifestyles which includes labor market work for a significant portion of their lives regardless of their marital or familial status. The practice of withdrawing from the labor market during the childbearing/childrearing years is decreasing.

- The study of career development has been based on data from males and generally has not included factors and issues of particular importance to women. When applied to women elements in career development theories conflict with and question the degree of primacy accorded familial roles by women--the confounding variable!

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Separate theories for women's career development are being proposed and continuing work in this area in advocated. Yet, until research provides both an explanatory and predictive framework, practitioners need assistance in identifying factors which appear to make women's career development decisions more complicated--if not different from--that of men. This is particularly true for those adult educators not formally trained in vocational psychology who are faced with clients or students confronting occupational decisions.

THREE MAJOR DECISION POINTS

It is proposed that these issues be considered in the light of their influence at three major decision points in women's lives. These decision points are those of occupational choice, implementation, and continuity. There are two particular advantages to this approach. First, these decision points form a framework for identifying and examining issues related to women's career development which cut across age boundaries. This is not to say that the circumstances and considerations of a 50-year old widow reentering the labor force after a prolonged absence are the same as those of a 23-year old high school dropout trying to survive as a single parent. Obviously, an individual's age, economic condition, educational level, and aspirations as well as numerous other factors greatly influence how she will approach occupational involvement. However, these decision points enable attention to textural elements in the process of occupational involvement which are broadly applicable while acknowledging that the issues enumerated have varying importance to individuals. The second advantage of clustering issues in this way is the case with which most educators can recognize and apply this framework to their knowledge of their own students. Although people seek out adult education courses and programs for a variety of reasons, increasingly acquiring or upgrading occupational skills in a primary motivation.

To better serve adult education's consumers, planners and administrators require a more precise "fix" on the issues influencing women's career development. This is even more important for those providing counseling, advising, and support services to women students.

CHOICE

The concept of career choice applied to women is difficult. Females are generally socialized to adopt an external locus of control--an attitudinal stance that control of their lives and fates rests beyond their direct control. Thus, the ego strength, self concept, and internal control necessary to engage in decision-making for management of one's life is not particularly well-developed among most women. Some efforts to develop a degree of internal control among female students may be needed as preliminary to or part of the counseling and educational components for career choice.

The decision point of career choice must itself be broken down into two categories--the process of choice and the content of choice. Within the process of choice several issues bear assessment prior to developing strategies to facilitate female clients or students. These issues are:

(1) Orientation toward management of one's own life. This includes the concept of locus of control as introduced above.

(2) Orientation toward labor force participation. This issue comprises questions over entrance into long-term career planning and preparation, short-term job preparation, or preparation for a lifestyle excluding labor force involvement.

(3) Support and reinforcements of woman's choice. This issue confronts the positions and reactions of significant others in women's lives related to their career decisions. Some social pathology may be evident where significant others overtly support the women's choice but covertly resent or act to subvert the choice.

(4) Conflicts, actual or anticipated, over familial responsibilities, and the adoption of a multiple-role lifestyle.

(5) Sex stereotyped assumptions about the number and types of occupational options appropriate for consideration by females in general, and the individual in particular.

Issues related to the content of choice include:

(1) Limited opportunities for occupationally exploratory behavior resulting in a deficit in the breadth of occupational possibilities.

(2) Lack of knowledge and assistance in identifying skills and interests gained in one setting as helpful in choosing an occupational area; the difficulty in seeing that skills gained in nonwork settings are potentially transferrable to a job.

(3) Limited access to models and mentors who can assist women in their process of choice.

(4) Acknowledging the investment needed to develop credentials for job entry.

IMPLEMENTATION

The concept of implementation of choice focuses on the process of goal attainment. The issues seen as related to it include,

(1) Lack of experience in proper identification of means-ends cognizance; investing one's resources in appropriate goal-attainment strategies; and differentiating between goals and intermediary means to goals.

(2) Lack of familiarity with techniques related to job entry. These skills are necessary for anyone entering the labor force, but because assertiveness and outreaching activities are required, these skills may not have been developed by women as part of their behavioral repetoire.

(3) The double-edged sword of fearing success and fearing failure. Failing and succeeding each have their own implications for shaping one's self concept. As one continues in an occupation, this issue remains a key factor in one's evolving occupational self concept. It is not unusual for a women to wonder if she has failed or succeeded at a task "because of" or "in spite of" being a female.

(4) Women entering occupations nontraditional to females may experience some anxiety over their femininity and their ability to implement their self concepts adequately within such occupations. The "rites of passage" upon entrance to many occupations generally tests one's sex role identity and distorts it to an uncomfortable degree by work colleagues.

(5) The reality of employment discrimination which closes off occupational possibilities or opportunities for upward mobility within an occupation for women.

CONTINUITY

Career continuity frequently requires periodic investments of self and of one's resources to update, regenerate, or advance within one's occupation. Without such investments, stagnation can deteriorate one's occupational development. For women, career investments are even more important to maintain their occupational performance and competitive edge. Additionally, for women, several other issues in career continuity are apparent.

(1) Pressures to interrupt occupational involvement to fulfill home and familial responsibilities. Such interruptions have an adverse effect on advancement, job tenure, and the establishment of retirement benefits.

(2) Concern over undertaking increased job responsibilities or opportunities for advancement which could require travel or relocation in conflict with personal and familial responsibilities. This issue is generally considered as relevant to how seriously a woman and the significant others in her life hold her job to be.

(3) Lack of knowledge about and access to the informal communication systems in work organizations which are influential in job advancement.

(4) Lack of real feedback and support for occupational performance and growth. Again, the skills to secure helpful feedback on one's performance and assistance to improve upon it are not behaviors women learn from their socializing experiences. Occupational aspirations for women require support.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ADULT EDUCATION

This paper has sought to identify and differentiate among the issues faced by women in their career development through three stages of decisions: choice, implementation, and continuity. The adequate provision of occupational development programs for women will need to include a needs assessment of the stages of women's career development as related to choice, implementation, and continuity; and the development of specific educational/counseling programs targeted to the needs in each stage. Furthermore, adult education can cooperatively assist vocational education in developing its capabilities to serve adults effectively--particularly in expanding its specialized services to adult women.

BLACK-WHITE DIFFERENCES IN CURRICULUM PROGRAM STATUS SELECTIONS OF ADULT LEARNERS AT THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Russell F. West
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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine if a modified model of the status attainment process could be used to specify the relationships that exist between antecedent factors and the status of a specific curriculum program choice made by adult learners attending the community college. A theoretical model of curriculum program status choice was subjected to path analysis in order to determine its adequacy and to test relationships between model variables for black and white students. The results gave support to many of the findings from other studies on the status attainment process.

Within the last fifteen years, much of the social stratification research has focused upon the status attainment process. Using multivariate analytical techniques, status attainment researchers have attempted to understand the complex sets of events through which the adult comes to occupy a particular position in the social status hierarchy (Haller and Portes, 1973). The initial work in this area focused on status transmition between parents and offspring, demonstrating the importance of education as a mediator between one's ascribed status and later occupational achievements (Blau and Duncan, 1967). Further development of this early model led to the development of the "Wisconsin Model" of status attainment (Sewell and Hauser, 1972). This model depicts the effects of one's ascribed socioeconomic status, along with mental ability, upon academic performance and the importance of one's significant others. In turn these factors are thought to influence subsequent ambitions/aspirations and ultimately attainments. Much of this research has examined the differential fit of the proposed model to white and black subgroups.

While this line of research has been important in discovering the status attainment process operating for whites and blacks within the larger social system, these models have not been used extensively to examine the institutionalized mechanisms which lead to later life attainments--namely, the entrance into and differentiations among the curricula within educational institutions. While some "curriculum tracking" research has been undertaken which examines black/white differences in curriculum selection at the high school level, there has been an absence of research which examines the curriculum selection process in terms of perhaps the most recent of all educational institutions, the community colleges, with their emphasis upon vocational/technical training. This lack of research is particularly critical when considering the changing nature of the community college student population. Over the last 10 years the older adult learner has become a major force within these two-year institutions. These adult learners are older than the traditional college age population and generally enroll on a part-time basis while holding full-time jobs (Shearon, et al., 1981). With their emphasis on occupational training these institutions are directly preparing these adult learners for positions within the occupational structure. It is argued in this paper that curriculum selection at the community college represents a means whereby these older adult learners are prepared to enter various occupations, leading to a differential distribution of occupational status in later life. It was hypothesized that this selection process operates differently for white and black subgroups. Thus, the major objective of this study was to identify those factors which influenced the adult learner's selection of a program of study at the community college, and to test a model of curriculum selection for white and black subsamples so that direct comparisons could be made.

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REVIEW OF LITERATURE

While the initial focus of status attainment research was on developing a general explanatory scheme which could be applied most effectively to the white population, recent efforts have recognized that the processes through which an individual attains a position within society varies according to one's race. Porter (1974) used a national sample of black and white men in a longitudinal study and found that different models were needed to explain occupational attainment. The effect of being a black greatly reduced the relationship among most variables within the model. The effect of background status upon educational attainment was much lower for blacks than for whites. Ambition also had a much lower effect upon attainment for blacks. The study also indicated no effect of significant others upon grades or educational attainment for blacks and showed the greater importance of educational achievement in explaining attainment for blacks than for whites.

Kerckhoff and Campbell (1977) used the Wisconsin Model to compare differences between groups of blacks and whites who were studied as ninth graders in 1969 and were recontacted in 1974. The researchers reported vast differences in the processes which led to status attainment for the two groups. Background Socioeconomic Status had a much more significant effect upon every wave in the model for white students than for blacks. The researchers found the hypothesized model to achieve a poor fit for the black sample. Whites appeared to follow a process of attainment which showed a great deal more continuity than did the blacks, with the intergenerational transition of status being much more consistent and the effect of other antecedents being much more stable. Portes and Wilson (1976) also found in a national longitudinal study that status attainment models differed significantly between white and black subsamples. The effects of Background Socioeconomic Status were stronger for the white subsample than for blacks, while the effects of academic performance upon educational aspirations was greater for blacks, as was the effect of educational aspiration upon educational attainment.

In addition to research on the status attainment process, studies have shown that curriculum differentiation within an educational institution may lead to academic stratification and provide differential access to high status occupations in later life. Numerous writers have examined the antecedents of curricular enrollments in the community college in terms of bivariate relationships, i.e., between parents' socioeconomic status and whether the student enrolls in a college transfer, technical or vocational program (Karabel, 1972; Cross, 1971; Pincus, 1980). These studies have shown that there is a positive relationship between parental status and one's enrollment in a program (assuming college transfer is high status and vocational is low). Studies have also demonstrated that black students are more likely to enroll in the low status programs than are white students (Karabel, 1972).

Two systematic studies have been undertaken which utilize a multivariate model to sort out the complex sets of relationships between antecedent factors and the curricular selection at the community college (Shearon, Templin, Daniel, 1976; Templin and Shearon, 1980). These researchers found that socioeconomic variables accounted for a greater proportion of the variation in the dependent variables than did academic ability variables. The effect of race also was found to make a significant contribution to the variability in curriculum program selection.

THE GENERALIZED MODEL

A major conceptual assumption undergirding this study was that a modified "Wisconsin Model" of status attainment could be used to explain curricular status choice of the adult student, since the training received prepares one to enter a given occupation. The proposed model (Figure 1) indicates that Background Socioeconomic Status directly influences Academic Performance, which in turn directly influences the Current Socioeconomic Status of the individual. This added factor of Current Socioeconomic Status is an important one when discussing the "new" community college student, since the majority are older, married, working full-time and financially independent of parents. The Current Socioeconomic Status of the adult learner further influences Educational Aspirations, with Educational Aspirations leading to the status of the adult learner's curriculum choice at the community college.

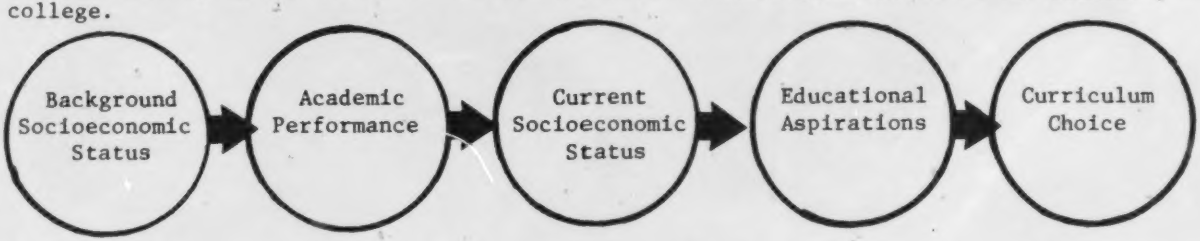

Figure 1. The Generalized Model

METHODS

The data were drawn from a cross-sectional study of students enrolled in the North Carolina Community College System during the Spring of 1979. A stratified systematic cluster sample of curriculum and continuing education students was drawn from each of the 57 constituent member institutions within the system. The 16,408 questionnaires returned represented an 82% response rate. It was necessary to limit analysis to only males in the overall sample in order to do an analysis of the proposed model that would be comparable to other studies of status attainment. The only respondents to be included were those in curriculum programs which had been assigned a status score from the U.S. Census Socioeconomic Index. This criteria excluded 500 of the 11,758 curriculum respondents from the total sample of curriculum students. Further, the study was limited to those males who were between the ages of 29 and 51, who were considered the head of their household and whose parents were still living. These limitations reduced the number of cases available for analysis in this study to 1042, with 859 white and 183 black respondents. Of particular interest was the extent to which a proposed model of curricular status choice at the community college would hold up for subsamples of both white and black adult students. All dependent and independent variables were measured via a 48-item, machine-scorable questionnaire during the 7th and 8th weeks of the Spring quarter.

Background Socioeconomic Status variables included measures of Father's Education (FAED), Mother's Education (MOED) and Parental Income (PAIN). Two separate indicators, High School Rank (HSRA) and High School Grade Average (HSGR), were used to measure Academic Performance. Current Socioeconomic Status was measured via three variables; Education Level (EDLE), Current Income (CUIN) and Current Occupation (CUOC). Educational Aspiration (EDAS) was ascertained by asking the students the extent to which they planned on pursuing a four-year college degree. Curricular Status Choice (CUST) was used as the dependent variable, based upon a critical underlying assumption that within the community college there are a large number of different educational programs and that these programs have associated with them a particular societal evaluation of general worth. It was further assumed that this ranking of program areas was a reflection of the occupation that the program was designed to prepare the student to enter. The specific program in which the individual was enrolled was given a status score from the U.S. Census Socioeconomic Status Scale, based upon the occupation for which the student was being prepared to enter. The match between program enrollment and occupation was facilitated by the descriptions of each program given in the North Carolina Community College System Educational Guide (1978-80 Educational Guide, 1979).

Mean scores were calculated on all model variables and Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients were calculated between variables, for white and black subgroups. The proposed model was subjected to path analysis in an effort to determine its adequacy for white and black subgroups.

RESULTS

White students had higher mean values on nearly all variables in the model except HSGR and EDAS. Apparently, the black students were more intent upon continuing on towards a four-year college degree after attending the community college. The mean Curriculum Status Choice of the white males was higher than that of the black students, representing an interesting apparent contradiction; the black students, while enrolling in lower status programs were more intent upon earning a college degree. Perhaps the most striking difference between the white and black samples centered around what might be considered a status achievement versus status ascription argument. Background Socioeconomic variables were much more highly related to Academic Performance variables, EDAS and CUST among black students than white students. However, Current Socioeconomic Status variables were more highly related to EDAS and CUST among whites than blacks.

Although for black students the model resulted in some relatively higher coefficients, due to the small size of the black sample, the standard errors were much larger, and many seemingly significant effects were assumed nonsignificant and hence uninterpretable. A much higher proportion of the variation in HSGR was accounted for in the black (14%) than in the white sample (3%). The greater importance of MOED and PAIN in explaining this variation was apparent from the black model, while for whites these factors had little direct effect. These same factors were important in explaining the variation in HSRA among black students, although the overall R^2 was the same for both samples. The variation in EDLE was explained by different factors among the black and white samples. Among whites, MOED and FAED both contributed equally to the variation in EDLE, while among blacks, MOED had a much stronger effect than FAED. High School Grade and HSRA had an equal effect upon EDLE among whites. However, among blacks, HSGR was the dominant effect.

When regressing CUOC upon the independent variables and comparing coefficients between samples, noticeable differences occurred. A larger portion of the variation in CUOC was explained by an ascriptive effect, i.e., Father's Education, among black students, while Academic Performance variables had a smaller effect. Among whites, Background Socioeconomic Status variables had smaller effects than "achievement" factors, i.e. HSGR and HSRA. The effects of Background Socioeconomic Status variables (MOED and PAIN) upon CUIN were much stronger among blacks than whites. However, the effects of HSGR and HSRA were stronger among whites than blacks. Mother's Education, HSGR and HSRA were seen as having a larger effect upon EDAS among blacks than whites, while EDLE was a much more powerful predictor of EDAS among whites than blacks.

It appeared from the analysis that Background Socioeconomic Status and Academic Performance, independent of Current Socioeconomic Status, were more important in determining enrollment in programs for blacks than for whites. The direct effect of EDLE and CUOC were much stronger among whites than blacks. However, the rather large standard errors among black students made interpretations of paths difficult. To achieve a more parsimonious and interpretable model all trivial paths were deleted and the reduced models were run. However, the same general conclusions were drawn from an examination of the reduced form model. It appeared that the model held fairly well for whites; Background Socioeconomic Status variables directly affected Academic Performance and Current Socioeconomic Status. However, the only significant effects of Background Socioeconomic Status upon aspirations or curriculum choice were mediated through Current Socioeconomic Status. When insignificant paths were deleted, the proposed model was reduced considerably for black students and could not be used to explain variation in Curriculum Status Choice. The only paths that remained showed MOED to have a fairly strong direct effect upon EDLE, while PAIN indirectly affected EDLE through HSGR. It appears that the path through which the black adult male came to select a curriculum in the community college was poorly articulated and unpredictable--at least with the proposed model.

DISCUSSION

The results of this research have given support to many of the findings from other studies which show blacks and whites differing to the extent that they follow a modified "Wisconsin Model" of status attainment. The nontraditional white students followed a much more logical and predictable path to curriculum selection than their black counterparts. The black adults' paths towards curriculum selection cannot be predicted from the results of this study, suggesting that perhaps a new model is needed to explain program selections of black adult learners. This research has opened an area of inquiry which holds much promise for the future. The community college movement has grown tremendously over the last 15 years and there is a pressing need for policy research in this area. Because of the direct link to the American occupational structure, it is critical that we understand more fully the role these institutions play in providing educational opportunities for all adult learners. This will require that researchers develop an understanding of the status attainment processes operating within these institutions. Future analyses may provide a vital link between the two dominant areas of stratification research existing today--i.e., the macro status attainment process operating within society and the institutionalized models of academic differentiation or curriculum "tracking" existing within our educational institutions.

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A STUDY OF MARYLAND 4-H EXTENSION AGENTS ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE DISADVANTAGED

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Abstract

This study was designed to take a close look at Maryland 4-H Extension Agents attitudes toward the disadvantaged and how their background characteristics relate to these attitudes. With an overall view of Extension 4-H Agents attitudes toward this clientele group it will be possible to structure training for Agents to be more effective in dealing with this clientele group.

Programs designed to meet the needs of the poor proliferated during the famous "Great Society" days of the sixties. Vast quantities of money were invested in materials, equipment, people, social service agencies and community action programs. The major objective of these programs was to assist the poor and disadvantaged by providing education, job training, and needed social services. The general belief was that by restructuring these institutions, poor people would be able to improve their way of life.

The poor and disadvantaged have been characterized by low wages, unemployment and underemployment, residential segregation and discrimination, illiteracy, low level of organization beyond the family and feelings of inferiority and deprivation. These factors have been the target of social service agencies.

The Cooperative Extension Service has developed two programs specifically designed to meet the unique needs of the disadvantaged. The Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP) was developed to raise the nutrition levels of urban and rural poor families. This program, implemented by a number of State Extension Services across the nation, involves a network of County Extension Agents and Paraprofessionals who work with poor families in one on one and group settings with the objective of increasing an awareness of proper nutrition for the total family. It has been closely monitored, frequently evaluated and generally considered a success.

The Maryland 4-H Program has been continuously changing, expanding and attempting to involve youth and adults of all socio-economic background in a variety of learning experiences. One of its major foci involving the disadvantaged has been the youth phase of the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program. This program is administered in a number of counties during the summer months, attempting to change the nutritional attitudes of youth from disadvantaged families and, hopefully to involve them in on going 4-H programs in the future. In conjunction with this effort, 4-H Agents, funded through the 1890 segment of the Maryland Cooperative Extension Service, dedicates 50% or more of their time to recruiting, training and maintaining volunteers from disadvantaged backgrounds.

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Much has been written and observed about disadvantaged or poor people. Yet, surprisingly little is known about how Extension 4-H Agents perceive the disadvantaged. What are their attitudes toward the disadvantaged? What is the relationship of background characteristics and their attitudes towards the disadvantaged? This is the central problem of this study.

The subproblems of this study are: (1) How do Maryland Extension 4-H Agents view the disadvantaged? (2) How does ones socio-economic background affect one's perception of the disadvantaged? (3) What differences in attitude toward the disadvantaged are there between agents reared in urban, rural and suburban areas? (4) What differences in attitudes are there between Black and White Agents?

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature reflects a vast amount of information generated concerning the attitudes of professionals toward disadvantaged people. The attitudes of professionals in the helping professions were studied extensively during the sixties and early seventies due to the increase in government programs for the disadvantaged. The attitudes of teachers, Adult Basic Education Instructors, Social Workers and other professionals in the helping professions were researched to develop a body of knowledge concerning attitudes toward the poor. In general, the literature cited gave a negative view of the disadvantaged by professionals from these professions.

METHODOLOGY

The population for this particular study consists of 4-H Agents employed with the Maryland Cooperative Extension Service, University of Maryland, College Park and Eastern Shore campuses. There are presently forty-nine 4-H Agents employed with a number of vacancies existing.

The survey instrument, "MacDonalds Poverty Scale", was used for measuring attitudes towards poverty by Extension 4-H Agents. To determine socio-economic status, Hollingshead's (1958) Two Factor Index of Social Position was used.

The researcher collected the data through a telephone interview and mail questionnaire. The attitudinal data were collected by mail. The demographic data were gathered through the telephone interview.

The analysis of the data was made in relationship to the subproblems of the study. The t-test was used to assess the association between attitudes toward the disadvantaged and the demographic variables. The significance level was set at the .05 level.

FINDINGS

The major findings of the study are as follows: (1) Agents had a positive attitude towards the disadvantaged. (2) There was a significant difference between Agents representing the lower-upper class and lower class at .01 level of significance. There was also a significant difference between the middle class and lower class at the .05 level of significance. (3) Agents reared on a rural farm have more negative attitudes than Agents reared in urban areas. (4) Agents reared in rural non-farm areas had significantly more negative attitudes than Agents reared in urban areas. (5) White Agents had more negative attitudes toward the disadvantaged than Black Agents. (6) Male Agents have more negative attitudes than female Agents.

IMPLICATIONS

The attitudes toward the disadvantaged of Maryland 4-H Agents was found to be positive. But, this positive attitude does not reflect an aggressiveness to involve disadvantaged people in the program. Granted there are a number of Agents who are required by their job descriptions to work with the disadvantaged. This does not preclude the remaining from involving this clientele in programs.

With a large percentage of Agents with five years or less experience (58.3%) it would be advantageous to provide some training for Agents in working with the disadvantaged. The key to affecting change in the attitudes toward the disadvantaged is based on a continuous education of the professional at the field level and a commitment by the organization that the disadvantaged are an important part of the total 4-H program. With these ideas established within the framework of the organization, there will be an increased awareness of the potential of disadvantaged people.

Twenty-seven Agents grew up in rural farm or rural non-farm areas and were scored in the lower and middle class using the social index. The majority of Agents (56.24%) were reared on rural farm or rural non-farm areas. With generally a rural mindset, it would be somewhat difficult when hiring Agents to work in urban and suburban areas. If the Agents assigned to the urban areas, which in recent years has had the largest concentrations of minority and disadvantaged, are generally from a rural background it will make the implementation of programs somewhat difficult. This is an area that administration should be aware of when staffing positions in the urban and metropolitan areas.

An alarming finding was the large percentage of Agents that considered the Affirmative Action Objective as one which could be used to justify working with disadvantaged clientele. This should be discussed with Agents because it would be impossible to include a thrust to involve disadvantaged clientele along with a thrust to make all programs open to all people. The Affirmative Action should be tied to all objectives and not considered as one which would be a catch all for including the disadvantaged in programs. A clarification is needed.

As we enter a phase in our history where the needs and wants of the disadvantaged are being deemphasized by government it is very refreshing to know that there are professionals who have an awareness of their needs and a positive attitude towards them. This study implys that there are professionals who are willing to go the extra mile for the disadvantaged.

By all means there are attitudes that need to be changed. As the professional is considered to be a change Agent, he or she, has too, many times lead by example. If we are to make an impact on the less fortunate, if we are to involve them in learing by doing programs, which requires intensive involvement, then our attitudes must be positive and sincere.

META-RESEARCH AND RESEARCH NEEDS IN LIFELONG LEARNING

Huey B. Long[1]

Abstract

The expansion and increased visibility of lifelong learning has further revealed the developing nature of the field. Fortunately, research and publication activity concerning lifelong learning has paralleled enrollment and public acceptance of lifelong learning as a legitimate behavior. The expanding body of research that addresses lifelong learning issues, however, presents an attractive challenge to scholars and practitioners. It simultaneously challenges scholars to understand and validate the new research and identify continuing gaps in knowledge topics pertinent to the education of adults.

Meta-research is one way of responding to the challenge posed by the annual publication of hundreds of research reports. Six types of meta-research in adult education have been identified by Sork. They are as follows: (1) inventories of research; (2) general reviews of research; (3) critical reviews of specific topics; (4) research agendas or taxonomies of needed research; (5) focused critiques of research methodology; (6) framework of paradigms for understanding and improving research. Knowledge of meta-research in lifelong learning is helpful in establishing personal research priorities.

Type four meta-research, research agendas or taxonomies , as identified by Sork, is perceived to be of primary value to individuals in assisting in the development of orderly research programs. In contrast, several such agendas of needed research are noted, but there is little evidence that they have influenced the direction or topics of investigations in lifelong learning. For example, Knox and Kreitlow have provided provocative lists of research topics. Knox's most recent list contains over 100 topics of needed research.

Rather than repeat existing items of needed research or even to add new topics to old lists,this paper identifies major research needs. The identified activities represent approaches to research rather than specific research questions. The five identified research needs are as follows:

1. Needs associated with conceptualizing research.

2. Needs associated with the integrating adult education research.

3. Need for programs of research.

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4. Need for improved dissemination of research.

5. Need for improved research reporting skills.

While there is no guarantee that it will happen, it is believed that by addressing the above research needs the field will be better able to respond to specific research questions.

META-RESEARCH AND RESEARCH NEEDS IN LIFELONG LEARNING

Increasing popularity of lifelong learning as reflected by public attention to the topic, large enrollments of adults in learning activities and a growing population of professionally educated educators of adults have combined to challenge those of us who are concerned with the knowledge base of lifelong learning. We recognize that there are a variety of ways by which humanity has attempted to create knowledge over the years. We legitimize our understanding of a phenomenon in diverse ways. Some turn to authority, some turn to philosophy, some turn to experience, some to intuition, and some seek a scientific explanation.

Today, we are concerned with a scientific way of knowing. We are interested in what we refer to as research: a practice of stating a question, making observations, collecting, analyzing and interpreting data and drawing conclusions. It is through this process that we have improved our knowledge about adult learners. It is through such a process that we have arrived at some helpful conclusions as the following:

1. Educational achievement levels are associated with participation in lifelong learning activities.

2. Entitlements appear to be positively correlated with participation;

3. The ability to learn does not necessarily decline during the first six decades of life.

4. It is not possible to predict "motivation" for participation by knowing the content of a learning activity.

5. A large proportion of participants in lifelong learning activities seem to identify some life change with their enrollments in a learning activity.

Despite our increasing knowledge about the adult learner and the context for lifelong learning there are a number of important questions that we have failed to address entirely, of which we have inadequately studied. For example,

1. What kinds of associations exist between specific learning styles and educational techniques?

2. Is age associated with learning styles? If so, how and why?

3. Can attitudes toward education be changed during childhood? If so, how? What variable and processes are useful in bringing about positive attitude change?

You undoubtedly have additional and different questions that are concerned with programming processes, the social environment, the physical environment, promotion and marketing, the development of adult educators and so forth. We have several examples in the literature of adult and continuing education of efforts to develop inventories and agendas of needed research. Knox has recently given us a list of over 100 research questions; the College Board published and widely circulated a small book on the topic. Kreitlow provided a list in the 1960's and then reviewed the progress of research in the areas he identified then years later.

Because of experience with lists or inventories of needed research I am of the opinion the such inventories have limited value. I can make this observation even though I have some concerns about obvious gaps in our knowledge based on two years of intense indepth study of adult and continuing education research in preparation of my book tentively entitled "Research Foundations for the Education of Adults." Perhaps, it is because of the extensive review that I believe that research inventories have limited value.

If inventories of needed research seem to be limited in their usefulness how can we constructively spend this time together? Our time may be best spent if we shifted our focus from needed research to research needs. To address the issue of research needs we will engage in what is being referred to as meta-research, or research on research of lifelong learning. The following portion of theis paper is divided into three major divisions. Part one provides a brief discussion of different types of meta-research in adult and continuing education. Part two focuses on five research needs in adult and continuing education. Part three is a summary of the paper.

META-RESEARCH

Sork has identified a typology of meta-research that includes six forms of systematic study of adult education research. They are as follows:

1. Type I. Inventories of Research
2. Type II. General Reviews of Research
3. Type III. Critical Reviews on Specific Topics
4. Type IV. Research Agenda or Taxonomies of Need Research
5. Type V. Focused Critiques of Reserach Methodology
6. Type VI. Framework or paradigms for Understanding and Improving Research

Each of the above six types of meta-research are briefly described below.

Type I. - Inventories of Research

There are a number of examples of this type of meta-research in adult education literature so I will not attempt to provide an exhaustive list of such inventories. For illustrative purposes, reference to the three books published on adult dissertation abstracts by the Adult Education Association seems to be adequate. Other lists of other research activities have been published in Adult Education and by ERIC. These lists are usually limited to providing simple bibliographic information on the research. They are occasionally supplemented with an abstract.

Type II. - General Reviews of Research

This type of meta-research is designed to provide a general overview of adult education research, usually within a given time period. Examples of this type of research are more abundant in the 1950's and 1960's and were published in the Review of Educational Research of the American Educational Research Association.

The outstanding example of Type II meta-research is the book An Overview of Adult Education Research by Brunner and Associates. My book, which is currently in the hands of the editors at Follett Publishing Company, Research Foundations for the Education of Adults, is the first comparable effort of this kind since 1959.

Other illustrations of this type of research are found in the 1969 and 1970 handbooks of adult education.

Type III. - Critical Reviews on Specific Topics

This type is self-explanatory. Research on a specific topic is intensively and extensively reviewed to determine the status of knowledge on a specifically defined topic. In a sense, Brunner's overview book contained a number of such reviews of this nature in each chapter. Other illustrations of type III meta-research are to be found in the pages of Adult Education. Verner and his students were frequent contributors to the literature of this type.

Type IV. - Research Agendas or Taxonomies of Needed Research

Type IV research has already been referred to in the opening comments.

Type V. - Focused Critques of Research Methodology

Type V research is also self-explanatory. It is research that focuses on the methods of research. Examples of this kind of research are to be found in Adult Education and in papers presented at research conferences.

Type VI. - Framework or Paradigms for Understanding and Improving Research

Type VI meta-research is designed to go beyond the methodological inquiry of Type V to look at research in adult and continuing education from a broader perspective. This paper serves as an illustration of Type VI meta-research. My studies of the publication practices of selected professors of adult education and collaborative work with Agyekum on the content analysis of Adult Education are further examples of this type.

In my opinion, discussion of meta-research Type V, Research Agendas or Taxonomies of Needed Research, is not very productive at conferences. This is not to suggest that research agendas are seldom developed for the field by general writing and by speeches. Research agendas are perceived to be every person. Professors and others engaged in research may be encouraged to develop an agenda for research by the presence of funds and local institutional pressures. But without such external pressures it is likely that we study the topics that are of interest to us with limited reference to the opinions of others. Related comments on research agendas are shared in Part two of this paper.

Now that we have established my bases concerning research agendas and the importance of meta research, let us look at what I have identified as research needs.

RESEARCH NEEDS

My impressions on the topic research needs were inspired by several specific experiences that are related. Theyare as follows, the first experience was gained through work on the Adult Education Handbook Series Volume Changing Approaches to Studying Adult Education , the second includes continuing analyses of the Adult Education journal and papers presented at two adult education research conferences over the past ten years, and finally, the third source of inspiration is my more recent reviews of literally hundreds of abstracts, articles, books, papers and reports for my book, tentatively titled, Research Foundations for the Education of Adults. Continuing acquaintance with the research and the critical and hortotory literature on the topic has contributed to opinions and attitudes reflected in the following observations.

Need

Before discussing specific areas of needs, let us turn our attention to the concept of need as used here. I am concerned with what has been defined as normative, prescriptive or real needs. According to Monetter "a need may be called normative when it constitutes a deficiency or gap between a 'desirable' standard and the standard that actually exists". Others call such a construct a prescriptive or real need. Following McKinley, two models were used in the identification of the research needs discussed here. They are the

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problem-need model which is derived from diagnosing a deviation from a standard of adequacy and the goal-identification model which contributes to a general improvement focus rather than just a remedial focus.

Six general research needs have been selected for limited development here. Each of the six needs are worthy of much fuller discussion than we are able to provide today. The needs include the following:

1. Needs associated with conceptualizing research.

2. Needs associated with the integration of adult education research.

3. Need for programs of research.

4. Need for improved dissemination of research.

5. Need for improved research-reporting skills.

Research Concepts

You are reminded of the assumption about the instrumental purposes of research noted earlier. There are at least two different philosophical perspectives of knowledge, one sees knowledge as requiring no further justification, it is good because it is true, the other represents knowledge as being functional, the goodness or value of knowledge is derived from its usefulness. My comments are based on the assumption that knowledge about adult education is valued because it is useful in someway. It may be useful in contributing to theory or it may be useful because it directly helps to resolve some problems.

Research needs concerning conceptualization of investigations in adult education concerns are associated with ways that we conceptualize research. The conceptual need exists on at least two levels, the general level and the specific level. At the general level we are concerned with the big picture that includes such issues as the nature of knowledge, what constitutes knowledge, what are the relative merits of different ways of knowing, how do we relate the results of different approaches to studying a topic?

Apps, Knowles, Long and others have addressed the broader conceptual research needs. If I have interpreted Apps and Knowles correctly they have advocated different ideas. Apps appears to recommend a broader framework within which knowledge may be created. His conceptual parameters include thinking, sensing, synthesizing, and accepting. Knowles' spiral concept is perceived primarily as providing a vertical dimension for the development of a scientific empirical concept. Perhaps, in someway these two concepts can be integrated.

The important element in the comments of Apps, Knowles and Long that attracts attention is the encouragement for investigators to consider a range of alternative ways of knowing. The exhortation differs among the three yet the theme is one that says adult educators should not worship at only one alter as far as research philosophy is concerned. Long pleads for using "appropriateness" as the criterion for the selection of a research method. Apps encourages us to consider a number of alternatives and Knowles encourages us to think developmentally about research methodology.

Conceptual needs also exists at the specific level. At the specific level we are concerned with problems associated with specific inquiries or questions. Let me give an example from another field to illustrate this point. Certain chemicals such as pemoline, pictrotoxin and mentrazol have been associated with memory and learning. Most studies in the area have cast these chemicals as independent variables and memory as the dependent variables. Accordingly research designs typically include a treatment by which one or more chemicals are inserted into the subject's bloodstream and the effect of the treatment on behavior is measured. In contrast, David Krech has hypothesized that intellectual activity may stimulate the physiological production of such chemicals. Hence, his research designs have inverted the typical dependent-independent variables thereby behavior is the treatment and independent variable and the chemical is the the dependent variable.

The inverting of independent and dependent variables is not within itself particularly innovative in conceptualizing research. However, the development of namological structures that result in such reversal transportation of variables may be the result of a new conceptualization or fresh approach to long standing concerns such as learning, program development and instruction.

Some research needs appear to require that adult educators develop longitudinal studies that include long-term observations of participants and non-participants, persisters and dropouts. Such designs may well begin with some subjects as early as five or six years of age. Others may begin after age eighteen even after age fifty. But there is strong reason to believe that some useful answers to some important questions will not be available until such studies are done and done well. This point is illustrated by the impact that longitudinal studies have had on knowledge concerning adult learning ability.

There is clear and compelling evidence of the ability of adult educators to accept and use different research procedures as the anthropological, ethnological and grounded theory approaches. There is a need for the continued use of such approaches along with critical incident analysis, path analysis and multivariate statistical studies. In other words I believe that adult educators should be as creative and innovative as possible in the design of research. There is no disagreement among us concerning the challenge of devising optimal research procedures on extremely challenging issues.

Integrative Efforts

Activities designed to integrate and consolidate and synthesize advances in knowledge of the education of adults need to be strengthened and encouraged. University Microfilms at the University of Michigan reports that over two hundred dissertations in adult education were completed annually in 1978, 1979, and 1981. Bachus reports over 1100 adult education dissertations were completed in the period from 1970 to 1977. Collectively these two sources indicate more than 1700 adult education dissertations were written in the most recent eleven year period. During the same time more than 600 research papers were presented at the two main adult education research conferences and/or published in Adult Education. Some of the articles, dissertations, and papers are duplication of efforts. Nevertheless, the publication of more than 2,000 research reports dufing 1970-1980 is encouraging. Yet, it contains elements of a problem. How can we systematically refine our knowledge base so that the incremental value of numerous research projects accumulate in a meaningful manner?

In one way this problem is associated with the first research need identified in this paper. Reviews of research are not always accorded the status they deserve. In my opinion, research and practice can be potentially improved more by some good solid reviews of previous research than by a research project that has a limited research review base and which has limited generalizability or external validity.

It is assumed that it is understood that in all instances I am calling for adequate rigor, logic, and adherence to the highest standards of scholarship. It is especially important to be reminded of this expectation is in this discussion of research reviews. Good reviews can be extremely helpful in illuminating several areas of concern such as gaps in the research, conflicts or contradictions, points of agreement, trends and additional hypotheses.

Cross, for example, has provided us with one such review of the numerous participation studies. Through the review of the research literature on this topic, one of three explanations for participation become evident. Explanatory frameworks are based on (1) personal qualities or characteristics, (2) social characteristics and (3) institutional variables. Usually investigators have conceptualized their research to limit consideration to only one or two of these explanatory frameworks.

Other recent works are also useful in providing a good point of departure for drawing inferences for practice or for deriving ideas for future specific research.[2] Unfortunately, we do not have the means by which we can integrate findings of the X number of investigations conducted in 1981 on any topic such as associations between personality variables, instructional procedures and achievement.

Programs of Research

A third research need in adult education is related to the two previously discussed ones. There is a need for "programs of research". By programs of research I mean that institutions and individual professors and practitioners should be encouraged toward some kind of systematic consistent approach to selected issues. The advantages of developing programs of research are numerous. Some of them are as follows:

1. Institutional resources could be developed in depth. For example, library holdings and departmental resources on a given topic such as cognitive structure in adults or history of adult education or teaching techniques and personality traits could be strengthened.
2. Beginning from a given position, research in the selected areas could proceed in a linear fashion.
3. Student-investigators would benefit from the regular involvement and with other researchers and would possess a greater level of sophistication prior to initiating their own research.
4. Student-investigators could cooperate in research activities in such a way as to improve the substantive, methodological and applied aspects fo research.
5. Through greater specialization individual faculty members would strengthen their own scholarship and improve their abilities to lead and direct and supervise unfolding research.

Reviews of the research contributions from the major producers of published research in the United States and Canada do not reveal the current existence of research programs. There are a few instances where there are suggestions of the possibility of a kind of informal effort in this direction. Tough's personal investigations concerning the self-directed learner is associated with a number of similar investigations conducted by students at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Boshier's follow-up to Verner's interest in participation and other studies of this topic are identified with the University of British Columbia. Dickinson and his students, also at the University of British Columbia, have been identified with teaching issues. Knox, associated with the University of Wisconsin, has been identified personally with a number of investigations related to the adult learner and adult development and administration. Long, at the University of Georgia, has contributed to historical studies of the colonial period of America, and Even, at the University of Nebraska, has focused on the adult learner and teaching questions.

Comparative analysis of the publications based on the research of individual investigators, however, do not result in conclusions that specific institutions have tended to focus either on topic or methodology.

The proposal is not without its disadvantages. For example, it is not unusual for professors of adult education to feel that individual students should be given great freedom in the identification and selection of research topics for dissertations. Limiting the opportunities for research topics is perceived to be inconsistent with a basic philosophical position concerning the importance of personal choice, self-direction and human worth. Somehow, the automatic requirement that a student would be required to conduct research in a pre-selected topical area is offensive. A second disadvantage is associated with the possibility that faculty members would become too narrow in their specialization and hence lose a broad perception of the field of adult education.

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[2] These include Anderson and Darkenwald's analysis of participation and persistence and Irish's dissertation on persistence studies. Verner and his students illustrate earlier work on integrative analytical reviews.

Taking both the advantages and disadvantages into consideration, it seems that the development of research programs in graduate departments of adult education is commendable. The two major disadvantages identified can be addressed. First, students can be well informed of the focus of a department and individual faculty members prior to admission. If the program is not consistent with the student's academic and professional goals other institutions that specialize in the approporiate areas (as far as the specific student is concerned) can be identified. The prospects of over-specialization by an individual faculty member can also be addressed by the opportunity to have a major area of specialization such as adult learning and a minor area of inquiry such as history. One topic could be used by the individual professor as an alternate area when he temporarily becomes fatigued through emphasis in one area.

Improved Dissemination

Closely connected with the need for better integration of previous research is the need for dissemination. Somehow, ERIC, Dissertation Abstracts, Adult Education and the two research conferences fail to satisfy the needs of the investigator and it is even more likely that the needs of the practitioner are even less well served.

ERIC contains some useful information, but one has to wade through so much useless stuff that it is of limited productivity. Similar criticisms apply to Dissertation Abstracts, however, the problem here usually is one of too little or too much information. A provocative abstract may encourage the purchase of a dissertation copy and only then does the investigator discover the research design to be flawed to such an extent that the conclusions are highly questionable. A few $15.00 experiences like that lead to disillusionment.

The editors of Adult Education are greatly challenged to mitigate a situation that will become more severe in the future. We publish only approximately 16 articles annually in what is the single most important research publication in the field, especially for adult educators. We devote approximately 240 pages to the journal annually, hence the mean article length is 15 pages. Other journals such as those published by the American Psychologcial Association usually provide 4-8 page articles.

Finally, the two research conferences are now providing a forum for 80-100 papers annually. The personnel responsible for the conferences are encouraged to consider ways of improving the dissemination of more useful summaries of the research, to consider the issue of resouce allocation where duplication is not strongly discouraged. For example, it is possible for the same paper to be presented at both conferences and published in Adult Education. The relative quality or significance of the research so reported does not always justify such exploitation of scarce resources.

Research-Reporting Skills

I am not going to castigate this audience by a virulent attack on the field by generalized sweeping condemnation of methods used in research or weaknesses in our reporting ability. Because, I do not believe we are unique among the academics. However, there is always room for improvement. Negative destructive criticism is not the best path to that goal. Example, continuing encouragement and open dialogue are the better procedures.

According to a survey I conducted this year among A.E.A. / U.S.A. members who had served on editorial and publications committees during the 1970's the following descriptions could be used to describe our research:

1. Adult education research in the ten years including 1981-1980 was described as good.

2. Improvement over previous time periods was noted.

3. Improvement was accounted for by the following:

   a. Improved theoretical foundations

   b. Rigor of research designs

   c. Sound data collection procedures

   d. Relationship of research problems to previous research is clear.

It is interesting to observe that areas of weakness cited by the respondent also include one or more of the above reasons given for improvement. This suggests that the respondents see improvement, but also believe additional improvement is justified. The weaknesses cited are as follows:

1. Theoretical foundations

2. Conceptual ability of investigators

3. Validity/reliability of instruments used

4. Relationship of research problems to previous research is not clear

5. Statistical analysis procedures.

SUMMARY

This paper is based on the premise that the rapid expansion of the research literature concerning adult education and lifelong learning topics requires an orderly approach to meta-research and the resolution of satisfaction of five different research needs.

Following Sork, six different types of meta-research conducted by educators were noted. Then five specific research needs as opposed to needed research, were discussed. They include the following:

1. Needs associated with conceptualizing research.

2. Needs associated with the integration of adult education research.

3. Need for programs of research.

4. Need for improved dissemination of research.

5. Need for improved research-reporting skills.

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